

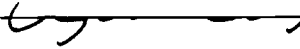
AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

Jo Anne M. Surerus for the degree of Master of Science in Apparel, Interiors and Merchandising presented on December 9, 1988.

Title: The Effect of Crafted With Pride in the USA Cues on Evaluations of Sweaters Made in the USA, a Developed Country, and a Developing Country

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Abstract approved:

 \_\_\_\_\_  
Leslie Davis

The present study examined the influence of Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli and country of origin on consumers' attitudes toward and evaluations of clothing. The sample consisted of 112 female college students enrolled in one of three courses in the College of Home Economics, Spring term, 1988.

A two-by-four complete factorial between subjects experimental design was employed. The independent variables consisted of two levels of exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli (exposure and non-exposure) and four levels of country of origin labels (made in the USA, made in a developing country, made in a developed country and no identifying label). Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the eight experimental cells.

Dependent measures consisted of subjects' evaluations of a stimulus item on twenty-five evaluative criteria using a seven-point unipolar semantic differential scale, a measure of the price subjects expected to pay for the stimulus item and the perception of the price as expensive, inexpensive or neither expensive or inexpensive.

The 25 items on the evaluative measure were factor analyzed. The resulting six factors included "status/prestige," "fashionability,"

"objective product criteria," "subjective product criteria," "color," and "media promotion."

Findings of the study indicate that there was no significant difference between the prices subjects indicated they would expect to pay for the stimulus item based on exposure/non-exposure to Crafted With Pride cues. In addition, there was no significant difference in the prices subjects indicated they would expect to pay for the stimulus item based on its country of origin. Findings also revealed that there were no significant differences among subjects' ratings of the stimulus item on the six evaluative criteria factors for the exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues variable or for the country of origin variable.

Additional findings indicated that there was an interaction between the exposure to Crafted with Pride cues and country of origin variable for the objective product criteria. The mean scores for the treatment made in the USA/not exposed to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues were significantly higher than the scores for the treatment made in the USA/exposed to Crafted With Pride cues. The mean scores for the treatment made in the USA/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues were significantly higher than for the treatment made in Italy/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues. In addition, the mean scores for the treatment made in Italy/exposed to Crafted With Pride cues were significantly higher than the scores for the treatment made in Italy/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues.

In conclusion, neither exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues nor country of origin had an effect on subjects' ratings of the stimulus item on the evaluative factors or on the price subjects expected to pay for the stimulus item. However, country of origin and exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues interacted to affect ratings of the stimulus item for the objective product criteria factor which included items closely related to the quality and value aspects of the Crafted With Pride in the USA advertising campaign.

The Effect of Crafted With Pride in the USA Cues  
On Evaluations of Sweaters Made in the USA  
a Developed Country, and a Developing Country

by

Jo Anne M. Surerus

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THE EFFECT OF CRAFTED WITH PRIDE IN THE USA CUES  
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The Apparel Import Issue

The United States apparel industry has encountered rapid expansion of the levels of competing apparel imports over the past decade. Both the dollar value and square yard equivalents of apparel imported into the United States have increased (Barker, 1987; "'86 Trade Deficit," 1987).

The growth of apparel imports has exceeded the growth of the domestic apparel industry. In 1986 apparel imported to the U.S. increased by 13.3% (see Figure 1). According to Kent Barker (1987) of the U.S. Department of Commerce, import growth has averaged 18% a year since 1980. Figure 2 shows that between 1976 and 1986, the value of apparel imported to the United States increased every year. Giselle Jenkins-Picard (1986) reported that since 1982, there has been an 85% increase in the value of imported apparel and only a 3.3% increase in the value of U.S. apparel industry shipments. Although exports had been decreasing since 1982, in 1986 they increased by 11%. In 1986, for each dollar's worth of apparel exported sixteen dollar's worth of apparel was imported (Barker, 1987). The resulting \$21 billion textile and apparel trade deficit was almost double that of 1982 and represents 12.5% of the total trade deficit ("'86 Trade Deficit," 1987; Wrightman, 1987). The apparel trade deficit alone was more than \$16 billion - over 500% more than in 1976 (see Figure 2). Over 200% of the increase in the apparel trade deficit has occurred in the last three years.

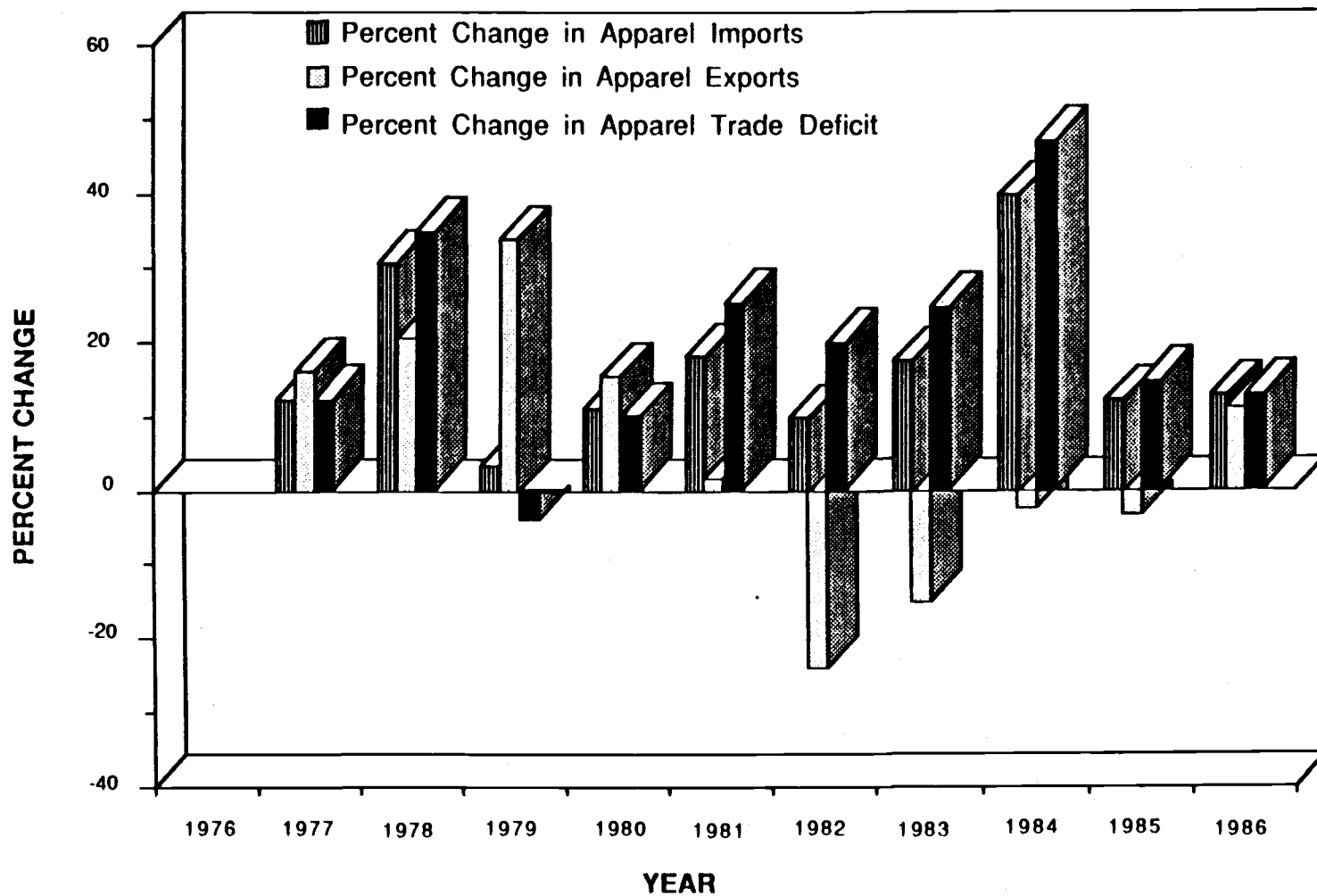


Figure 1. Percent Change in the Apparel Trade Deficit, Apparel Imports and Apparel Exports 1976 - 1986.

<sup>1</sup>1985 and 1986 Figures are Estimated.

Compiled from "Apparel" by Kent Barker, 1987. U.S. Industrial Outlook, p. 42-2.

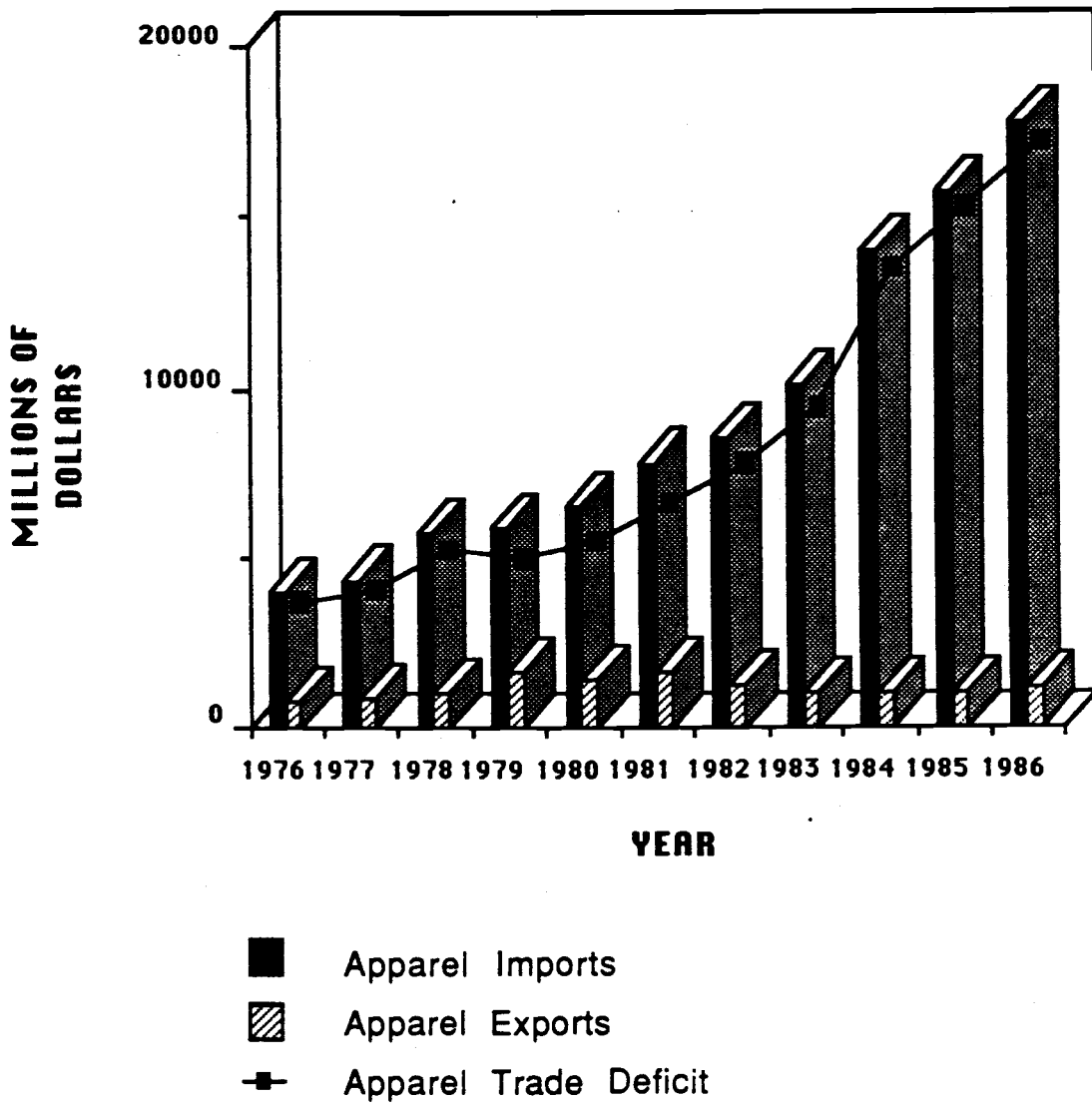


Figure 2. The United States Apparel Trade Deficit, Apparel Imports and Apparel Exports 1976 - 1986.

<sup>1</sup>1985 and 1986 Figures are Estimated.  
 Compiled from "Apparel" by Kent Barker, 1987. U.S. Industrial Outlook, p. 42-2.

Import penetration of the U.S. apparel market is over 50% (American Textile Manufacturers Institute [ATMI], 1986; Davidson, 1986; Gregg, 1985). It is estimated that if imports grow 15% annually they will comprise 80% of the U.S. apparel market by 1990, resulting in the loss of 947,000 jobs (Gregg, 1985; "Imports Will Nix," 1987; "Made in the U.S.A.," 1986).

Apparel categories such as sweaters, men's woven dress shirts, knit shirts, trousers, and men's tailored clothing face severe penetration of imports. Higher importation levels of these particular categories are a result of U.S. apparel manufacturers' inflexibility, requirements for high initial order levels and lead times of six months or more ("Apparel's Last Stand," 1979; Siedel, 1983; "Will Electronic Knitters," 1981).

Several Far East apparel producing countries are experiencing a "fashion trade-up." Quotas (limits on the number of items imported) make it more profitable to increase the value of garments exported to the U.S. Imports comprise 70% or more of the sweater categories, particularly among fashion items in the women's, girls' and infants' (WGI) market sectors (Halpern, 1985; Siedel, 1983) (see Figure 3). In addition, as labor costs increase, foreign nations also enter the higher labor content and fashion oriented end of the apparel market to maximize profits (Barry & Dickerson, 1982; Courtless, 1985; Dlaboha, 1983). In order to avoid quotas foreign apparel manufacturers utilize fibers not restricted at the time by quotas. In 1984 importation of sweaters made of fibers not restricted by quotas, such as ramie, silk, linens and blends of these fibers, increased by 200% compared to an eight percent increase in the importation of sweaters whose fiber contents place them under quota restrictions (Halpern, 1985).

The U.S. apparel industry has been severely affected by imports over the past decade. The number as well as dollar value of imports has outpaced the growth of the U.S. apparel industry. These two factors contribute to the increasing apparel trade deficit which is viewed as a crisis by the apparel industry. Seriously challenged by

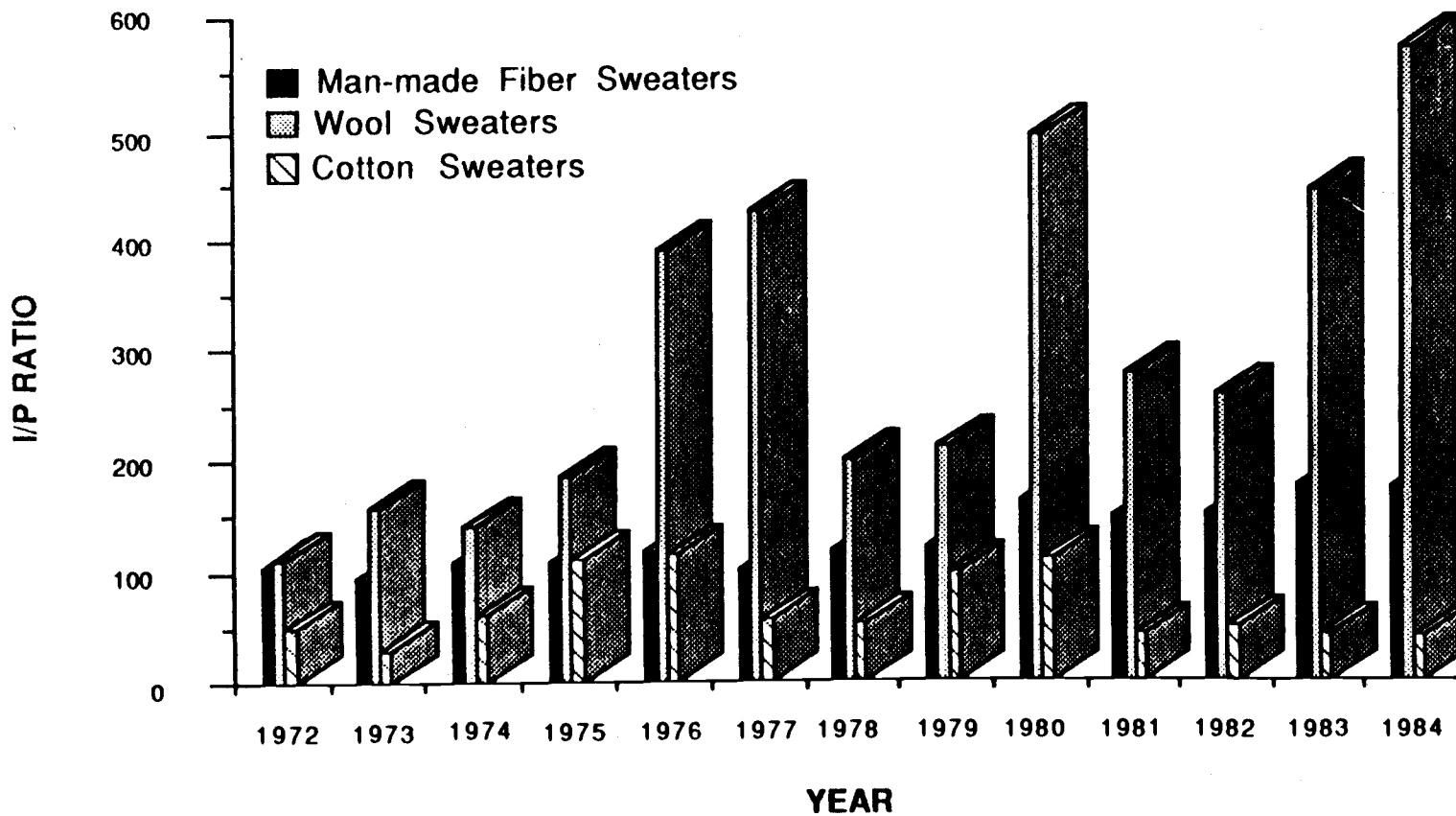


Figure 3. Import/Production Ratios (I/P) of Cotton, Wool and Man-made Fiber Women's, Girls' and Infants' (WGI) Sweaters 1972 - 1984.

Compiled from: U.S. production, imports and import/production ratios for cotton, wool and man-made fibers, textiles and apparel. U.S. Department of Commerce. International Trade Administration. March 1986.



foreign competition, the apparel industry's position is eroding and its market share is decreasing.

### **Components of the Apparel Import Situation**

There are several components of the apparel import situation that have contributed to the increase in apparel imports, the decrease in U.S. apparel exports and the resulting expansion of the trade deficit.

First of all, the world's most profitable textile and apparel market is the United States which consumes nearly 20% of total textile output while comprising only 4.9% of the world's population (Lenahan, 1984; Toyne, Arpan, Barnett, Ricks & Shimp, 1984; United States Bureau of the Census, 1986). The market share of developing countries is greater in clothing and textiles than in any industrial sector of the U.S. market (Harrison, 1984). In addition, growth in U.S. apparel consumption has not kept pace with import penetration.

Secondly, apparel production is often one of the first major manufacturing industries to start in developing countries. Production workers comprise 85% of the apparel work force in comparison to 68% of all manufacturing employees (Barker, 1987). This is due to the labor intensive nature of the industry and the relatively simple technology required for production (Aggarwal, 1985; "Apparel's Last Stand," 1979). Apparel manufacturing is one of the least automated industries, and capital costs per employee are approximately half the capital investment required in other manufacturing industries, making it an ideal industry for developing countries ("Apparel's Last Stand," 1979). Almost every nation has demonstrated the ability to start an apparel and textile industry.

The third element of the apparel import crisis is the wage difference between American apparel production workers and apparel production workers in developing countries. American apparel production workers earn an average of \$5.75 per hour - 40% less than the average U.S. manufacturing employee (Barker, 1987). In contrast, wages in the People's Republic of China, Mexico, Taiwan and Hong Kong

(countries producing more than 70% of the apparel imported into the U.S.) are \$.14, \$.43, \$1.16, and \$1.25 per hour, respectively (Eisen, 1983; "Profiles of Exporting," 1984). In addition to the wage difference, manufacturing policies that are illegal in the U.S. and lack of employee safeguards and protection costs mean that imported apparel costs up to 20% less than American-made goods at wholesale. Imports cost less even though they are charged duties ranging from 16 to 32% ("Apparel's Last Stand," 1979; "ATMI: Outlook," 1986).

The fourth element of the apparel import crisis is the relative strength of the U.S. dollar from 1980 to 1985. A strong dollar resulted in cheaper foreign products while making American products more expensive throughout the world (Quinn, 1986; Rudolph, 1985). President Reagan's administration, in an effort to enhance U.S. competitiveness, adopted policies that lowered the value of the dollar. Practically all currencies of countries that export apparel to the U.S., however, are linked to the dollar. Although the dollar has depreciated by 30% since 1985, this depreciation is partially offset by a 19% depreciation of the currencies of the main textile exporters to the U.S. (Mervosh, 1986). In addition, the dollar has appreciated nearly 60% against currencies of nations that are the main export markets for the domestic textile and apparel industries. Furthermore, since the value of the dollar has decreased, apparel imports have become only slightly more expensive - still considerably less expensive than domestic apparel (Honigsbaum, 1986; Mervosh, 1986). The decrease in the value of the dollar did not have as great an effect on the apparel and textile industries because of the industries' insensitivity to exchange rate adjustments.

The fifth element that has contributed to the apparel import crisis are trade policies of some foreign nations. U.S. exports of apparel were just 1.1 billion dollars in 1986 (Barker, 1987). U.S. apparel manufacturers find it difficult to export products due to protective measures which either block entry into a country or make our products less competitive due to higher prices. Protective measures consist of a complex system of licensing, requirements that

are impossible to meet, high customs duties and taxes, strict quality standards, and limits on goods coming in from industrialized nations (Harrison, 1984). Foreign governments also subsidize their textile and apparel industries through grants, low or no interest loans, government industry partnerships and tax incentives (Dickerson & Barry, 1980; Gregg, 1985; "Profiles of Exporting," 1984). The People's Republic of China, for example, targets a market and product for export development and operates at a loss if necessary in order to penetrate a market (Werner Management Consultants, 1984). Another related element of the apparel import crisis is U.S. trade policy. The U.S. has a free trade policy which makes it difficult for U.S. manufacturers to compete even in the domestic market. For example, the three largest importers pay a 15-25% tax rate compared to the 39% tax paid by U.S. manufacturers (McLean, 1986).

A sixth element contributing to the crisis is the failure of the Multi-Fiber Arrangement (MFA). The MFA excludes textiles and apparel from the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) which regulates world trade. The MFA became effective in 1974 and extends through July 31, 1991. Restrictive trade barriers and protectionism brought about the need for the MFA. The MFA's objective was to channel trade in textiles and apparel through a set of rules between developed and developing countries which would promote orderly advancement and liberalization of trade. Instruments of the MFA are tariffs (tax on imports which range from 7 to 50%) and quotas. These instruments were meant to be temporary restrictions that would give industrialized nations a chance to adjust (November, 1984).

Bilateral agreements (agreements governing trade between nations that set growth rates for quotas lower than those of the MFA) are negotiated within the MFA framework. Negotiations in 1986 brought several fiber types previously not eligible for quota control including linen, ramie, silk and blends with these fibers under MFA control (Courtless, 1987). The failure of the MFA is that it has become more restrictive and has been used effectively by both least developed and highly developed nations to protect their industries. Least developed

countries say the MFA promotes protectionism and discrimination by industrialized countries. The MFA has allowed the more developed countries with large profitable apparel and textile industries to monopolize quotas to the disadvantage of truly developing nations. The apparel industry also uses the MFA to promote trade restrictions (November, 1984; Wrightman, 1986).

Another important element of the apparel import situation is the retail industry. Imports are beneficial to the retail industry. They act as anchors of the retail price structure and create a "price impression" --the product for which the consumer perceives an exceptional value. Retailers also feel that foreign manufacturers are quicker and more flexible than domestic manufacturers and that imports are an important source of apparel goods that are often of higher quality, lower priced or no longer produced by the domestic industry (Abend, 1984; Love, 1986). In addition, imports also provide variety and keep retailers competitive. Retailers have dramatically increased the percentage of private label goods (store brands), most of which are produced off-shore. Consequently, the growth in private label goods has resulted in a large increase in imports (Chanko, 1985). In 1985 private label goods accounted for 20% of goods carried by retailers (Moin, 1985).

In an attempt to curb foreign trade regulation and apparel import quotas retailers formed the Retail Industry Trade Action Coalition (RITAC) in June 1984. RITAC consists of chief executive officers of retail establishments and national retail organizations and lobbies against foreign trade restrictions (Horn, 1985; Leventhal, 1984). Retailers proceed to source offshore because competition mandates purchasing the finest merchandise for the lowest price, no matter where it is manufactured (Karr, 1985). The largest retailers import over \$1 billion in products annually. Imports for K-Mart, J.C. Penney, and Sears Roebuck & Company are \$2 billion, \$1.8 billion, and \$1.4 billion, respectively. Robert E. Dewar, chairman of the executive and finance committee of K-Mart Corporation states: "Import

restrictions are making it difficult for K-Mart to bring in as many products as it would like" ("The Import Invasion," 1984).

The apparel industry feels that the retail industry is reaping all the benefits of the import situation. Although imports cost a retailer less, the savings is often not passed on to the consumer. Retailers take an inordinate mark-up on imports, drastically reducing any benefits to consumers. Retailers will not disclose information on mark-ups because of competition. Nevertheless, studies by the Marketing Research Corporation of America and Vladimir Pregelj of the Library of Congress found that the difference between prices for foreign and domestic goods is decreasing and that inexpensive imports do not have price benefits for consumers because retailers take larger mark-ups on imports than on domestic apparel (Battle, 1986; "When Free Trade," 1977). Retailers point out however, that if inexpensive imports were not marked-up as high, prices of domestic goods would increase so that they could achieve profit goals ("Trade Restrictions," 1978).

#### Impact of Apparel Imports on Apparel Manufacturers

The American apparel manufacturing industry has a large number of small specialized firms, and a small number of large diversified firms, which are more labor intensive than most U.S. manufacturers. The apparel industry has had a high number of business failures and an increasing number of mergers between large manufacturers. Apparel manufacturers face intense competition due to the relative advantages of apparel imports and the large number of domestic manufacturers ("Apparel's Last Stand," 1979).

In the 50 states 1,119,000 Americans are employed in 20,000 apparel plants (Taylor, 1987). The apparel industry employs more than six percent of the manufacturing work force and is the largest employer of women and minorities for manufacturing (Barker, 1987; Jenkins-Picard, 1986).

Employment in the apparel industry has declined each year for a decade. Between 1980 and 1985 the rate of decline was 3.1% annually

and in 1986 the rate of decline was 0.7%. The unemployment rate in the apparel industry in January 1987 was 11.6% (Taylor, 1987).

Unemployment has been attributed to both imports and improvements in technology (Barker, 1987). The American Textile Manufacturers Institute (1985) estimates that 1985 imports cost one million jobs in the U.S. It is also estimated that for every job lost in the apparel industry another job is lost in a supportive industry such as transportation ("Made in the U.S.A.," 1986).

The failure rate for apparel firms is high. Intense competition, improvements in technology and high levels of imports meant the loss of more than 350 U.S. textile and apparel plants and 300,000 jobs between 1980 and 1984 (Lettich, 1986; Sloan, 1986).

Competition and high levels of imports have also kept apparel prices at a moderate level in comparison to other nondurables (Barker, 1987; Jenkins-Picard, 1986). Until 1985 the Consumer Price Index (CPI) for domestic apparel had increased at a rate half that of the total CPI (ATMI, 1986). In 1986 the increase in the "all items" category was 0.6%, yet the increase in apparel and upkeep prices was 1.9%. The expansion is said to be caused by the increasing quality of imports (Courtless, 1987).

The apparel industry has responded to competition from imports by diversifying and consolidating through mergers and acquisitions, which have enabled manufacturers to integrate horizontally and vertically. Between 1969 and 1979, the total number of apparel manufacturers decreased by 3000 due to mergers, acquisitions or business failure ("Apparel's Last Stand," 1979). For example, Levi Strauss and Interco Inc., two of the largest manufacturers, recently merged ("The Financial State," 1986).

The apparel industry has also responded to competition by developing a number of strategies to maintain its position in the domestic market. These include sourcing, lobbying, marketing programs, and the "Quick Response" program. Sourcing involves the location of the manufacturing of garments and is based on relative gross margins (Dlaboha, 1983). Many U.S. companies have broadened their sourcing

alternatives to take advantage of the most cost effective production sites. Options include domestic production, importing, establishing foreign facilities and the use of Section 807 of the U.S. tariff code. Off shore sourcing benefits apparel manufacturers through reduced labor costs, increased efficiency, and improved quality in some garment categories ("Trade Tactics," 1985).

Section 807 of the Tariff Classification Act of 1962 permits domestic manufacturers to design, pattern and cut fabric in U.S. factories, ship this to another country for sewing and bring back the products to the U.S. for finishing and packaging. Duty is paid only on the value added ("Apparel's Last Stand," 1979). The value added is primarily the cost of the wages of the overseas workers (Brannon, 1987). Under the 807 code a "special access program" was started in 1986 which allows eligible Caribbean countries increased access to U.S. markets if products are constructed with fabrics manufactured and cut in the United States (Barker, 1987; Courtless, 1987; Novotny, 1986).

Manufacturers who choose to source domestically have taken steps to ameliorate their competitive situations. Many manufacturers have begun to follow the "Quick Response" and "Just in Time" concepts. These concepts were developed to foster collaboration and the use of high technology in an effort to establish improved ties between the supply chain of fiber and textile manufacturers and retailers (Novotny & Krein, 1985). Use of the concepts consists of increasing productivity, shortening the cycle of production and increasing the use of marketing information to determine consumer demand. Goals are accomplished through strategies that unite planning, production and marketing and through the use of advanced technology - computer aided design (CAD), computer aided manufacturing (CAM), electronic data interchange (EDI), inventory control, and robotic sewing (Barker, 1987; White, 1985). The resulting elimination of the cost of storing inventory, the reduction of mark-downs and the reduction of the current 30% retail stock-out rate will save the textile, apparel and retail industries \$25 billion each year ("Crafted With Pride Dazzles,"

1986). Indeed, the textile industry's effort to increase productivity resulted in a 93.6% operating capacity - the highest in twenty years (Northwest Apparel & Textile Association, 1987). Unfortunately, the technology that has enabled the textile industry to vastly improve its production productivity does not lend itself to increasing the apparel industry's production productivity. Foreign competition is a cause of the improvement in the textile industry. The increase in imports in the 1980's has driven unproductive domestic companies out of business; survivors are more productive and competitive (Northwest Apparel and Textile Association, 1986).

Efforts to protect the apparel industry from imports date back to the 1930's. In response to imports the apparel industry has rejuvenated its protectionist posture. Protectionism and a merchantilist viewpoint motivated the introduction of the Textile and Apparel Trade Enforcement Act in 1986. The objective of the act was the formation of an import licensing system and the rigid enforcement of the MFA by decreasing imports from the three major exporters, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Korea, and reducing remaining exporters to 1984 levels (Davidson, 1986). President Reagan vetoed the bill stating:

The protectionist approach does nothing to make our country more competitive. Rather, it is a short term pain killer that will make us less competitive in the future (Ostroff, 1987).

An attempt by Congress to override the veto in August 1986 was just eight votes short of passing (Meyer, Eadi & Borger, 1985). A subdued version of the bill which focuses on unfair trade practices and allows just a one percent increase in imports per year was reintroduced in February of 1987 (Ostroff, 1987). On September 16, 1987 the House of Representatives approved H.R. 1154, the "Textile and Apparel Trade Act of 1987," by a 107 vote margin (Congressman Denny Smith, personal communication, September 29, 1987).

A renewed protectionist attitude prompted apparel manufacturers, cotton growers, distributors, textile producers, labor groups, and



trade associations to form the Crafted With Pride in the U.S.A. Council in July 1984. The council, sponsored by the American Fiber, Textile, and Apparel Coalition (AFTAC) now has over 420 members ("Crafted With Pride Dazzles," 1986; Richmond, 1986). Crafted With Pride (CWP) is a technological and marketing approach that involves strategies and goals for each target audience - manufacturer, retailer and consumer ("Crafted With Pride Dazzles," 1986). CWP consumer related goals are: 1) to inform consumers about the link between jobs and their purchase decisions, 2) to strengthen the belief in the quality of products produced in the United States, 3) to promote a symbol for increased consumer identification of made in USA labels and to establish the influence of labeling as a instrument that provides facts required to make enlightened decisions (Davidson, 1986; Heiderstadt, 1983; "Milliken Matters," 1986).

CWP first researched consumer opinions on imports. Twenty studies demonstrated that patriotism and pride were motivating factors in the purchase of American textile and apparel products (Horn, 1985). In 1985 CWP developed a TV ad campaign highlighting popular stars in 30-second spots, combined with trade and consumer print advertising. Radio stations in 47 states also donated air time for three 30-second ads per day. Studies estimate that 93% of the total television viewing audience viewed the ads in 1986 (Clune, 1986; "Crafted With Pride Dazzles," 1986).

CWP programs directed toward retailers include personal contacts and an education campaign that presents the hidden costs of imports. These programs prompted Wal-Mart, K-Mart and J.C. Penney to initiate programs that should increase domestic stock and use the "American" theme in marketing campaigns (Sloan, 1986).

The label that CWP developed features the Crafted With Pride logo. It is used on hang tags, posters, advertisements and also displayed near cash registers. The CWP logo was developed after manufacturers were already using similar Made-in-U.S.A. labels. CWP treats the logo as a separate marketing tool. The logo strengthens

manufacturers', retailers' and consumers' product identification (Sloan, 1986).

The impact of imports on apparel manufacturers has decreased the number of domestic apparel manufacturers and forced remaining manufacturers to invest in new technology, change sourcing strategies, become involved in politics and increase the use of marketing tools. In effect, imports have forced the U.S. apparel industry to restructure.

### Research Problem

Increased apparel imports have affected both American apparel manufacturers and retailers, and the two industries have found themselves on opposite sides of a complex issue. U.S. consumers ultimately make the decision to purchase domestic or imported products and their decisions prompt retailers to meet consumer demand. Product information, properties of garments and components of their presentation that influence consumers' behavior are important to both manufacturers and retailers faced with marketing and promotional decisions.

The availability of product information does not necessarily influence consumers to use it. Research suggests that although consumers indicate that product information is important to them, they often do not use additional information when making a purchase decision. Davis (1987) found that subjects disregarded nearly half of the information available to them when judging the fashionability and quality of clothing items. Fabric and price were more important than quality and fashionability as criteria for subjects' purchase decisions (Davis, 1987).

The influence of country of origin information cues on consumers' evaluation of apparel has not been examined. Previous research examined consumers' attitudes toward imported apparel as well as quality and price differences between domestic and imported apparel. Dickerson (1982a, 1982b, 1982c) surveyed consumers to determine their

attitudes and perceptions about imported apparel and the import issue. The survey revealed that most consumers preferred U.S. made apparel. The influence of apparel imports on the consumer was recently explored by Gipson (1986). Although Gipson found that country of origin was not important in the apparel purchase decision, country of origin was more important to consumers who were aware of garment origin. Consumers' attitudes and behavior are not congruous as evidenced by the conflict between the results of previous research and the increasing number of apparel imports sold in the United States (Barker, 1987). Although consumers say that it is important that the apparel they purchase be made in the United States, they still buy imported apparel.

The contrast in consumers attitudes and behavior warrants that manufacturers and retailers take into account information cues affecting consumers behavior toward products when making marketing and promotional decisions. Manufacturers as well as retailers have used the Crafted With Pride in the USA label and logo to assist the reinforcement of advertising and country of origin recognition, as information cues to identify domestic products, and to enhance consumers purchase of domestic products. The focus of this investigation is to determine if consumers' attitudes toward and evaluation of a product are related to exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli. The Crafted With Pride in the USA Council, its members and retailers could benefit from this research, particularly for the evaluation of point-of-sale information and reminder cues.

#### Purpose and Research Objectives

The purpose of this study was to determine if consumers' attitudes toward and evaluations of domestic and imported clothing are affected by Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli. Therefore, the objectives of the research were:

1. To determine the effect of Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli on consumers' attitudes toward and evaluations of clothing made in the USA, clothing imported from a developed country and clothing imported from a developing country.
2. To determine the effect of exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli and country of origin information on the price subjects would expect to pay for a stimulus item.

### Research Hypotheses

It is apparent that the influence of Crafted With Pride in the USA cues on consumers' evaluations of imported and domestic apparel warrants examination. Feinberg (1986) suggested that it is possible that some purchase situations are dominated by the stimulus properties of the situation rather than solely by the instrumental ends resulting from the purchase (receipt of goods and services). Feinberg also suggested that there may be situations where consumers respond automatically to stimuli. The model for Feinberg's theoretical framework is derived from studies on the stimulus control of aggression. Studies by Berkowitz and LePage (1967) have demonstrated that the presence of aggression related stimuli can enhance aggressive behavior. In their research, the presence of weapons triggered aggressive responses. Just as cues related to aggression triggered aggression in Berkowitz's and LePage's study, cues related to the Crafted With Pride in the USA campaign are seen as being able to activate the attitudes that the Crafted With Pride campaign evokes. This theoretical framework also suggests that for some consumers the apparel purchase situation is controlled by the stimulus properties of the situation. Therefore, Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli could become an important stimulus property of the apparel purchase situation and in some instances consumers could respond automatically to the stimuli. This research attempts to demonstrate that situational stimuli can influence consumer behavior.

Exposure to information cues (stimuli) influences consumers' decision making. Exposure to credit card cues, for example, increases the probability, speed and magnitude of spending (Feinberg, 1986). If the Crafted With Pride in the USA campaign has been successful, then the Crafted With Pride symbol should increase consumer identification of made in the USA labels and influence consumers' attitudes toward and perceptions of clothing made in other countries. Therefore, it is predicted that exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli will influence consumers' evaluations of apparel.

Price is frequently used by consumers as a symbol of quality (Maynes, 1976) and has been shown to influence consumers' quality perceptions (Cline, 1979; Dardis, Spivak & Shih, 1985). It is therefore predicted that price estimations made by subjects will reflect subjects' evaluations of quality and will be influenced by exposure to Crafted With Pride stimuli.

The Crafted With Pride campaign has strived to link product beliefs with lifestyle attitudes, such as patriotism, and to increase consumers' degree of concern with the import situation. Hester (1986) conducted intercept surveys of consumers who had just purchased clothing. She found that knowledge of the Crafted With Pride campaign was related to caring about the location of manufacture. Cassill and Huddleston (1987) conducted a mail survey of female consumers aged 25-44 and found that consumers who were very familiar with the Crafted With Pride campaign reported that they were more likely to notice country of origin labels and purchase American made products. These consumers also indicated that they felt that imported apparel was of inferior quality. In these studies knowledge of Crafted With Pride campaign affected consumers' attitudes toward apparel. Therefore, it is predicted that awareness of the Crafted With Pride campaign and knowledge of the meaning of the Crafted With Pride symbol will influence subjects' evaluations and price estimates of a stimulus item.

Researchers have found that residents of developed countries display national bias in evaluation of domestic and foreign-made products. A hierarchy of bias has been exhibited toward foreign

countries (Baumgartner & Jolibert, 1977). Consumers have rated the quality of domestic made products higher than imported products, and they have rated products from more developed countries higher than products from less developed countries (Hampton, 1977). It is predicted that subjects will also exhibit a hierarchy of bias when evaluating an apparel item and when estimating the price of an apparel item. A product from the USA will receive a higher rating than a product from a developed country and a product from a developed country will receive a higher rating than a product from a developing country. Based on these premises the following research hypotheses have been formed.

### Hypotheses

- H<sub>1</sub>: The price subjects indicate they would expect to pay for an apparel stimulus item will differ between subjects exposed to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues and subjects not exposed to such cues.
- H<sub>2</sub>: There will be a hierarchical pattern of price estimations for apparel stimulus items with the domestic stimulus item (made in the USA) receiving the highest estimated price, the stimulus item made in a developed country (Italy) receiving the middle estimated price and the stimulus item made in a developing country (India) receiving the lowest estimated price.
- H<sub>3</sub>: Evaluations of an apparel stimulus item will differ between subjects exposed to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues and subjects not exposed to such cues.
- H<sub>4</sub>: There will be a hierarchical pattern of evaluation scores for apparel stimulus items, with the domestic stimulus item (made in the USA) receiving the highest evaluation score, the stimulus item made in a developed country (Italy) receiving the middle score and the stimulus item made in a developing country (India) receiving the lowest score.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This review of literature investigates the impact of apparel imports on the U.S. consumer, as well as consumer attitudes toward imported apparel and imported products in general, and perceived risk. Literature pertaining to apparel purchase decisions and clothing evaluative criteria are discussed.

#### Impact of Apparel Imports on the U.S. Consumer

Research on the consequences of apparel imports is limited. However, researchers have studied the costs of apparel imports and compared the quality of domestic and imported apparel.

#### Costs of Apparel Imports

Discussion of the costs of apparel imports focuses on two basic economic strategies--protectionism and free trade. Both of these economic strategies have ramifications for U.S. consumers as well as for industries competing with high levels of imports such as the apparel industry.

The theory of comparative advantage is the basis for the strategy of free trade. This theory maintains that for maximum productivity and efficiency of world resources in the long run, each country should trade for goods which it cannot produce efficiently ("Trade Restrictions," 1978). According to this theory the United States should import apparel from countries having comparative advantage in labor, capital and raw materials costs, which would result in lower prices paid for apparel. In addition, the mere presence of imports causes prices to be lower for substitute domestic goods. Analysis of supply and demand demonstrates that the presence of imports keeps domestic

prices lower by increasing the total supply of goods so that the equilibrium price is lower (Cline, 1979). This phenomenon is apparent for apparel; prices for apparel have increased at a slower rate than prices for most other products (Slater, 1986).

Economic factors that determine costs paid by consumers because of apparel imports are both tangible and intangible. The most obvious factor is the price paid for a garment. In addition, inconspicuous factors that affect costs paid by the public due to imported apparel are taxes paid to support government programs that restrict trade in apparel products. The hidden costs of tariffs and quotas must also be considered. A study by the Federal Reserve Bank of New York (cited in Rudolph, 1985) showed that quotas for autos, sugar and clothing in 1984 cost more than \$14 billion or \$228 per household. Fieleke (1971) estimated the costs of import duties for a family of four for each standard of living category. Fieleke found that tariffs place a greater financial burden on low income groups. Tariffs comprise a greater amount of low income groups spending than that of high income groups spending. Fieleke also found an inverse relationship between quality and the rate of tariff which results in benefits to people who purchase better quality products.

Other programs that require tax dollars have included unemployment insurance and public assistance for workers displaced by imports and trade adjustment assistance. The 1974 Trade Adjustment Act provides retooling, relocating and retraining benefits to workers and producers injured by import competition (Dickerson & Barry, 1980).

Research on the costs of imports essentially focuses on the tangible factor of actual prices paid for garments. Cline (1979), Terry (1985), and Dardis, Spivak, & Shih (1985), found that imported apparel is priced lower than similar domestically produced apparel. The American Retail Federation and the National Retail Merchants Association commissioned William Cline and the Survey Research Laboratory of the University of Illinois to formulate and conduct a survey of retail prices of domestic and imported products (Cline, 1979). The survey compiled prices for one-hundred sixty-eight



well-defined consumer products from four geographic areas. Fifty-two of the products were apparel. The majority of the imported products analyzed were lower priced than domestic products. Holding quality constant, apparel imports were priced 8.7% less than domestically produced apparel. Apparel products from developing countries in Latin America and Asia, excluding Japan, were priced 11.6% less than domestically produced apparel. Imports from developed countries in Europe, including Japan and Canada were 4.3% more expensive than domestic products. Although apparel imports from developed countries were 4.3% more expensive than domestic products when price ratios were analyzed, a regression analysis, in which store type, budget area, and location were held constant, indicated that imports from developed countries were also cheaper than domestic apparel. Cline also suggested that the presence of quotas restricts supply and permits products that are unregulated by quotas to command higher prices.

Data compiled by the Market Research Corporation of America (MRCA), on consumer purchases of men's sports shirts, dress shirts and slacks in 1978 and 1979 were used by Terry (1985) to determine apparel prices. The sample of 7,500 households belonging to the MRCA consumer panel was demographically similar to the U.S. population. Terry found that price comparisons between domestic and imported men's apparel indicated that the average price of domestic apparel was higher than the average price of imported apparel for all of the product categories. The average price of a domestic dress shirt was 26% higher than the average price of an imported dress shirt. The average price of a domestic sports shirt was 4% higher than the average price of an imported sports shirt. There was no significant difference between foreign and domestically manufactured slacks.

Dardis, Spivak, and Shih (1985) also examined price differences between men's imported and domestic dress shirts. Prices for shirts were compiled one day a week for four months - from April through August in four retail stores (a traditional department store and 3 national department chain stores) in Washington D.C. The shirts were white, short-sleeved, and had a 65/35% polyester/cotton fiber content

and a durable press finish. The imported shirts consisted of two national brands from the traditional department store, and two private brands from the three national chains. The domestic shirts consisted of two national brands from the traditional department store, and two private brands from the three national chains. Initial prices for the domestic brands were 11% higher than prices for imported brands, and prices remained relatively stable for the first 10 weeks.

This study was continued for 10 additional weeks to determine the effect of sales promotions on prices. At the end of the 10 week sale period the national brands were nine percent more expensive than the private brands contrasted to a 30% difference before the sales. Domestic shirts were four percent more expensive than imported shirts. A three-way analysis of variance of sale price (brand, origin and time) established that origin and brand had a significant effect on price. There was a significant interaction for origin and brand in which the effect of origin was different for the brands. Prices of domestic private brands were higher than those of imported private brands and the prices of the national brands were identical for all origins.

In contrast to these results, Vladimir Pregelj, an economist at the Library of Congress, conducted a study for the U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Ways and Means, which found that imports from developing countries "do not result in any price benefit to the consumer" (cited in Dickerson & Barry, 1980). Pregelj found that retailers took higher markups on imported apparel than on domestic apparel and in effect diminished the capability of imports to curb inflation. This study, however, was based on congressional testimony of officials from the apparel and textile industries and labor unions because information on the pricing policies of retailers was unavailable (United States House, 1977).

The economic strategies of free trade and protectionism reveal contrasting costs of apparel imports to consumers. It has not yet been determined which cost is higher - the cost of lost industry and

jobs resulting in unemployment under free trade or the cost of higher apparel prices and lack of diversity under protectionism.

Based upon the previous research in this area, the present study addresses the hierarchy of perceived price differences between an imported product, from a developed or developing country, and a product manufactured in the United States.

### Quality of Imported Apparel

In addition to the costs of imported apparel, the question of quality has been raised. Generally, the perceptions of the quality of imported apparel affect consumers' evaluation of imported apparel. Inadequate research has been conducted that evaluates the actual quality differences between domestic and imported apparel. However, researchers have studied perceived differences in quality and actual price differences relating to quality. In previous research, Jones (1982), Baldwin (1984), and Dardis, Spivak, and Shih (1985) revealed that domestic apparel was not of higher quality than imported apparel.

Jones (1982) tested (upon purchase and after 60 launderings) similarly priced domestic and Korean men's polyester/cotton blend (80/20 and 65/35) durable press shirts. Laboratory tests were conducted to determine ratings for abrasion resistance, breaking strength, dimensional stability, pilling resistance, smoothness and appearance, tear strength, and whiteness retention. Imported and domestic shirts exhibited good performance ratings in laboratory testing. Relationships between country of origin and fiber blend types on each rating were not consistently in favor of Korean made or domestically made shirts. Korean made shirts, however, had significantly higher ratings in more of the tests than did domestically produced shirts. Specifically, Korean made shirts were rated higher in whiteness retention and filling breaking strength.

Dardis, Spivak & Shih (1985) researched price and quality differences of eight brands of men's dress shirts. Shirts were similar in appearance (white, short-sleeved, durable press) and of the

same fiber content (65/35 polyester/cotton). Three shirts of each brand were evaluated for appearance before use and for appearance after several launderings. Evaluation of appearance before use was based on shirt length, number of stitches per inch, pocket and collar construction and the number and type of buttons. Two-way analysis of variance based on scores for the above construction features indicated that brand and origin were insignificant for appearance before laundering. Appearance after laundering was tested by laundering the shirts 50 times and then inspecting them for edge abrasion and seam failure after the first, fifth, tenth, twenty-fifth and fiftieth launderings. Durable press appearance and seam puckering were also rated. There was no edge abrasion or seam failure for any of the eight brands. As the number of launderings rose, seam pucker and durable press appearance ratings declined. Domestic shirts received higher ratings for durable press appearance and 10% lower ratings than imported shirts for seam pucker. Although imported and domestic shirts were rated similarly for durable press appearance, three-way analysis of variance established that origin and number of launderings were significant factors for seam pucker ratings. Overall, results indicated that imported shirts were of similar or higher quality and were lower in price.

Baldwin (1984) studied the quality of cotton blend knit shirts made in five different foreign countries. Countries of origin were: Sri Lanka, China, Malaysia, Thailand and the Philippines. Although the shirts were from different countries of origin, only two different manufacturing firms produced the shirts. Shirts were evaluated on seam appearance and bursting strength, and also colorfastness to crocking, laundering, light and perspiration. No significant differences were found between countries or manufacturers except for color fastness ratings which were primarily due to differences in shirt hue.

Cline (1979) compared prices of imported and domestic items of similar quality and found that prices of imported products were lower than prices of U.S. made products. Dickerson (1982c) found that a

majority of consumers preferred domestic apparel, "primarily because they perceived garments produced in other countries as being of poorer quality" (pg. 241). Research by Sternquist and Davis (1986) found that country of origin did not explain consumers' perception of quality. Sternquist and Davis asked subjects to assign a price and indicate the quality of four identical women's sweaters for which store status and country of origin information cues were manipulated. Cues were combinations of either high-prestige and low-prestige store, and domestic or Korean manufacturer. Each subject rated each sweater in the same testing period. An analysis of variance found that significant price differences were apparent although significant quality differences were not apparent. Consequently the testing of all four sweaters at the same time did not seem to sway the subjects' price estimates. Subjects ascribed higher prices to domestic sweaters than to imported sweaters although differences were not significant. Store prestige was significant in revealing subjects judgments of quality while country of origin was insignificant.

The present study examined differences in subjects' assignment of prices as well as quality ratings for garments whose country of origin cues were manipulated.

#### Attitudes Toward Imported Products in General

Research on consumers' attitudes toward imported products is of two types. The first area of research focuses on consumers' attitudes towards imported products in general and the second area of research focuses on consumers' attitudes toward specific imported products. Researchers have used both actual and imagined products such as apparel, footwear and hardgoods. The majority of research has been of experimental design, using single cue rather than multiple cue stimuli. Measures of product evaluation included consumers' attitudes toward the product, quality assessment of the product, perceived risk in purchasing the product, and willingness to buy the product. In general, research demonstrated that product evaluations are affected

by country of origin (Baumgartner & Jolibert, 1977; Etzel & Walker, 1974; Gaedeke, 1973; Halfhill, 1980; Hampton, 1977; Kincaid, 1971; Krishnakumar, 1975; Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Reiersen, 1966; Schooler, 1971; Schooler & Sunoo, 1969; Schooler & Wildt, 1968; Tongberg, 1973; Wang, 1979; Worthing, 1974).

Bias and stereotyping (preformed judgments) of products due to country of origin were found for products in general, for classes of products, for specific types of products and for specific brands. For example, subjects expressed more favorable attitudes towards their own domestic products than to imported products (Baumgartner & Jolibert, 1977; Gaedeke, 1973; Krishnakumar, 1975; Nagashima, 1970, 1977; Reiersen, 1966; Schooler, 1971; Schooler & Wildt, 1968; Worthing, 1974). Consumers in developed countries rated domestic products more favorably than products made in other countries, especially developing countries. Krishnakumar (1975) found that consumers from less developed countries had a bias against their own products. They too preferred products from more developed countries. Subjects from relatively more developed countries discriminated less than those subjects from relatively less developed countries.

Several studies indicated a hierarchy of bias (Hampton, 1977; Krishnakumar, 1975; Schooler, 1971; Tongberg, 1973; Wang 1979). There was a positive relationship between product evaluations and degree of economic development. Products from developed countries were evaluated more favorably than products from less developed countries. Tongberg (1973) found that products were more positively evaluated when they were from countries with analogous belief systems to those of the respondent's country. Wang (1979) found that the country of origin's political climate and culture affected product evaluation. Wang stated that political climate and culture are also related to economic development.

Although there appears to be a generally favorable attitude toward products from countries that are culturally and economically similar to the subject's own country, attitudes seem to vary by product. Etzel and Walker (1974) found a significant difference

between general country attitudes and specific product attitudes by country of source. Differences between general national product attitudes and more specific product attitudes have been noted by Gaedeke (1973), Reiersen (1966), Nagashima (1970, 1977), Krishnakumar (1975), and Etzel & Walker (1974). Attitudes may also change over time. Nagashima (1970, 1977) compared studies conducted eight years apart and found that the image of Japanese products improved while the image of U.S. products deteriorated. Bias was found between products of more developed countries, between developed countries and less developed countries, and within less developed countries.

Demographic, socioeconomic and personality variables have been related to consumers' attitudes toward imported goods. Wang (1979) and Schooler (1971) found that males rated imported products less favorably than females. Schooler (1971) found respondents over 50 years of age rated foreign products significantly lower than respondents under 35 years of age. Schooler and Sunoo (1969) found that evaluations of foreign products by college students and consumers over 35 years old did not differ significantly. Halfhill (1980) found that there was no significant difference in attitudes toward foreign products between college students and middle aged housewives.

Anderson and Cunningham (1972), Schooler (1971), and Wang (1979) found lower foreign product evaluations among less educated respondents than among higher educated respondents. Tongberg (1973) however, did not find such a relationship. Wang (1979) found greater acceptance of foreign products by subjects with higher incomes. Anderson and Cunningham (1972) and Schooler (1971) found that occupation did not differentiate foreign product ratings. Wang (1979) found that whites rated products from Latin America and Africa lower than non-whites and Schooler (1971) found that whites rated products from Latin America, Nigeria and India lower than non-whites. Non-whites rated products from the U.S. and North America lower than whites. In summary, foreign product evaluations differed between the sexes, races and age groups, and on the basis of education and income levels. Although subjects' income and age affected responses, results were not

consistent. The limited number of studies undertaken restricts generalization on the relationship between demographics and attitudes toward foreign products.

Personality variables have also been associated with foreign product preferences. Anderson and Cunningham (1972) found that consumers exhibiting low foreign product preference may be characterized as relatively high in status concern, conservatism and dogmatism. Tongberg (1973) found no relation between dogmatism and attitudes toward products when the level of development of a country was not considered. However, among high dogmatics there was a positive attitude toward products made in culturally similar countries. Tongberg also found that high dogmatics were less aware of the country of origin of products, even though they tend to be particularly prejudiced against products made in some countries. Tongberg felt that high dogmatics may still purchase foreign products since they are often unaware of country of origin. Wang (1979) found consumers who see themselves as political conservatives were less receptive to foreign products than those who see themselves to be politically liberal. In addition, Tongberg (1973) and Anderson and Cunningham (1972) found that personality variables were better predictors of attitudes toward foreign products than demographic variables. Although personality, demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of consumers are not indicative of their use of country of origin criteria when purchasing a product, personality characteristics were better predictors of attitudes toward foreign products than demographic or socioeconomic characteristics.

Information about a product's country of origin has also been found to affect consumers' evaluations of products. Gaedeke (1973) measured students' opinions of imports with United States brand names that were made in developing countries. One half of the students were furnished with country of origin information and the other half were not furnished with such information. Gaedeke found that country of origin information did not significantly affect opinions about the quality of branded products in general. Students' quality evaluations



for some specific well known products, however, did vary between respondents who were aware and those who were not aware of country of origin. For example, the ratings of Penney's "Penn-Prest" shirt (made in Taiwan) did not differ when country of origin information was or was not provided, yet ratings of Weinstock's "Centura" dress shirts decreased by one-half when country of origin (South Korea) information was provided. Kincaid (1971) found that attitudes toward foreign brands that were perceived as foreign, differed from attitudes toward foreign product brands that were not perceived as foreign. Kincaid also found that attitudes toward foreign product brands which were not perceived as foreign were similar to attitudes toward American brands. In summary, research has shown that country of origin information provided to subjects affected their evaluations of some products with familiar U.S. brand names and that attitudes toward products differed based on the perception of brand names as foreign or domestic.

The effect of product evaluation bias can be offset by price concessions. Schooler and Wildt (1968) had students rate two identical pieces of domestic glassware. One goblet was labeled "Made in Japan," and the other was labeled "Made in U.S.A." After evaluation of the glassware, subjects were divided into six groups and given one of four price differentials. When prices were the same the majority of respondents (80%) selected the "Made in U.S.A." goblet. Purchase preference for the Japanese goblet increased to nearly 80% when it was priced 50% lower than the goblet labeled "Made in U.S.A."

The use of communication medium to promote products also influences products' typecast images. Reiersen (1967) found that exposure to communication and promotion improved attitudes toward Italian products, but not Japanese products. He found that advertising may be effective if prejudice is not too strong. Once again, there seems to be a hierarchy of bias toward products associated with countries which are similar to one's own country. The present study investigated the hierarchy of bias towards products made in a developed and developing country.

### Attitudes Toward Imported Apparel

A survey of available research on consumer attitudes toward imported apparel showed that a majority of American consumers are aware of the apparel import situation and support the restriction of apparel imports to the United States. Consumers also perceive that imports are of lesser quality than domestically made apparel. This is in sharp contrast to the level of imports being sold in retail stores.

Dickerson (1982b) interviewed 1,350 adult consumers by telephone concerning imported apparel. The sample was selected from 32 states and a cross section of the economic classes represented in the American population were present. Domestic origin was very important or somewhat important for clothing purchased by the majority of respondents (59.5%). Dickerson (1982a, 1982b, 1984) found that the majority of consumers perceived an apparel trade deficit (62.7%) and said that it would disturb them if more clothing was imported than exported (63.1%). The majority of respondents were also cognizant of the wage difference between United States apparel industry employees and apparel employees in other countries (71.3%). The majority of respondents (59.6%) felt that retail profit of imports was not the same as the retail profit from domestically produced apparel and over 50% of this group perceived that retail profits made on imports are more than profits made on domestic apparel. The majority of consumers concur with the following statements: (a) United States clothing manufacturers are being forced out of business by imports (63.5%); (b) jobs for U.S. workers are reduced as a result of imports (72.7%); (c) apparel imports should be limited by the federal government through stronger laws (55.3%) (Dickerson, 1982b).

Polls conducted by the Roper Organization ("Opinion roundup," 1985) and R.H. Bruskin Associates (Foley, 1978) found that a majority of the respondents favored protection for the U.S. apparel industry. In the 1984 Roper poll respondents were asked if the government should decrease clothing imports considering quality, value, and effect on jobs for Americans. A majority of respondents (51%) thought the

U.S. government should decrease the number of garments imported from Taiwan, Hong Kong and Korea. R.H. Bruskin Associates found that 70% of more than 1000 male and female respondents agreed "very strongly" and "agreed somewhat" with the attempt of the apparel and textile manufacturers and unions to restrict imports of foreign apparel to protect American jobs, even if clothing costs increase because of these efforts.

Quality of domestic apparel was rated higher than imported apparel overall. A majority of respondents (47.3%) reported that imports are not as good as domestically produced apparel (Dickerson, 1982b). Only 5.9% of respondents felt imports were better than domestically produced apparel and 23.9% of respondents felt imported apparel was equal to domestic apparel. Gaedeke (1973) found that marketing students rated the quality of United States textile products higher than textile products from Hong Kong, Taiwan, Mexico, Brazil and South Korea.

Consumer polls conducted by R. H. Bruskin Associates (R. H. Bruskin, 1987 and Foley, 1978), and for Newsweek (Arena, 1983) by the Gallup Organization, showed that consumers' brand evaluations favored domestically produced apparel versus imported apparel. American apparel brands were judged to be better than imported apparel brands by 75% of the 915 adults polled by Gallup. The 1978 Bruskin findings indicated that 69.6% of the 1,194 males polled consider United States apparel to be of higher quality than imported apparel. Women also believed that American apparel was of higher quality. The 1987 Bruskin findings also indicated that consumers consider United States apparel to be of higher quality (71%) than imported apparel. Perceptions of apparel quality communicated by different country of origin labels were described by 2000 consumers for Roper Reports (cited in Copley News Service, 1985). Twelve different country of origin labels were used. The variables examined were: country of origin, fiber content, union labor identification, and a recognized seal of approval. The "Made in U.S.A." label was most favored. A majority

of respondents (95%) described the "Made in U.S.A." label as "superior" or "fairly good." The "Made in Taiwan" label was ranked lowest. A Los Angeles Times poll (cited in Horn, 1985) reported that 66% of respondents thought that the best clothing in the world was made in the United States.

The present study investigated how evaluation of a specific apparel product is affected by manipulation of country of origin cues in addition to exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues.

### Consumer Behavior Related to Imported Apparel

Research on consumer behavior related to imported apparel has resulted in inconsistent findings. There appears to be a difference in findings based on the type of research undertaken. Although there have been striking increases in the amount of imported apparel, research findings based on recall of label information report that country of origin is very important to consumers. Research based on actual purchase behavior tends to place the importance of country of origin to consumers behind several other variables. Dickerson (1982b) found that 16.3% of consumers polled bought imports always or almost always, quite often, and fairly often in contrast to 83.7% who bought imports occasionally, seldom or never. Yet when Dickerson asked if respondents noticed when purchasing clothing whether a garment was made in the U.S. or imported 34.4% said they do not notice, 29.1% said they sometimes notice and 36.1% said they notice carefully. Dickerson (1982a, 1982b) also asked respondents if they believed that U.S. jobs are reduced by imports into the United States. Generally respondents said that imported apparel was harming the domestic industry and that their purchase practices were influenced by this.

Dickerson (1982c) categorized 408 consumers as frequent and infrequent purchasers of imports based on a self-report of how often they bought imports. Consumers who indicated that they bought imported apparel almost always, quite often and fairly often were classified as frequent purchasers. Respondents were also asked to

give reasons for purchasing or not purchasing imported apparel in an attempt to ascertain variables which prompt the consumer to purchase domestic or imported apparel. The majority of respondents did not clarify their reasons for purchasing or not purchasing imported clothing. Many respondents indicated that they "just buy what is wanted regardless" (Dickerson, 1982c). The most common reason for frequently purchasing imports was distinctive styling and the most common reason for less frequently or never purchasing imports was poor construction. Dickerson also found that infrequent purchasers of imported apparel noticed most carefully a garment's source and felt imports were not as high quality as U.S. products.

Smothers (1983) sought to identify motives for female consumers' purchases of domestic or women's blouses. Smothers surveyed 106 female consumers and 114 female students who had bought blouses within the previous three years. There were no consistent correlations between purchase motives and country of origin. Motives tested were: construction quality, color, coordination with existing wardrobe, designer label or brand name, durability, fabric quality, fit, price, and unusual detail. No apparent motives for the purchase of imported apparel versus domestic apparel were identified. McLean, Roper & Smothers (1986) sought to determine relative numbers of women's domestic and imported blouses purchased by consumers and students and to identify motives for the consumers' purchases of these blouses. The purchase motives identified most frequently by subjects were: color coordination with existing wardrobe, unusual detail (trim, styling, etc.), and attractive price. Other motives tested were: apparent durability, designer label, fabric quality, construction, and fit. Least important purchase motives were identified as designer label, brand name and durability. Imported blouses were purchased for the same reasons as domestic blouses.

Davis (1985) found that, when subjects evaluated the quality of one of two similarly styled skirts, intrinsic cues (cues that cannot be manipulated) such as physical quality were more important than extrinsic cues (cues that are not part of the physical product) such

as brand labeling. The overall level of importance of intrinsic variables such as brand label and country of origin information versus extrinsic variables to consumers have not been addressed.

Broberg (1972) studied an individual's reasons for choosing particular countries as preferred sources of selected apparel and the relationship between self-concept and clothing attitude factors. A relationship between aesthetic and social responsiveness clothing attitudes and parallel reasons for choosing countries was discovered. There was no relationship between self-expression, economic, status and prestige factors of clothing attitudes and reasons for choosing countries. Broberg, however found different reasons for choosing a country for specific apparel items which suggested that stereotyping of products might be due to experience, advertising, labeling or attitudes toward a country itself. In addition, there was no relationship between general self-concept factors and reasons for choosing countries. There was no relationship between status and prestige reasons for choosing a country and a subject's judgment of imported apparel as more fashionable and distinctive. Just 18% of the subjects did not favor importation of competitive foreign goods and these subjects also had higher scores on economic factors of clothing attitude and on the self expression reason for choosing countries as preferred sources of selected apparel items.

Gipson (1986) surveyed 181 adult female consumers directly following the purchase of a sweater for personal use. Sixty-two percent of the respondents purchased imported sweaters and 38% purchased U.S. made sweaters. Roughly 17% of the respondents knew the country of origin of the sweater they purchased. Country of origin was not found to be important in the decision to purchase a sweater. In fact, designer label and country of origin were least in importance. Store, warmth or coolness properties, fashion, fiber content, price, ease of care, feel of garment, expected durability, style or design, quality of workmanship, color and fit were all significantly more important than country of origin and designer or brand name. Country of origin was more important to subjects who were aware of

garment origin that to those who were not. Country of origin was significantly more important to those who bought U.S. made sweaters than to those who bought imported sweaters, although the importance of country of origin was low compared to other criteria for both groups.

Consumer behavior and expressed attitudes toward foreign made apparel were found to be contradictory. The literature reviewed revealed that consumers may not consider country of origin to be important in the purchase decision even though they state that they purchase imports less frequently than domestic apparel and that they believe that imports are hurting the domestic industry. It appears that consumers buy domestic and imported apparel for the same reasons.

#### **Factors Affecting Attitudes Toward and Purchasing of Imported Apparel**

Models of consumer behavior recognize that consumers search for product information in order to differentiate between comparable products and to make wise purchase decisions (Assael, 1987; Engel, Kollat & Blackwell, 1986). According to theoretical frameworks (Bloch, Sherrell & Ridgway, 1986) there are apparently two mechanisms in consumers' information search - pre-purchase and ongoing information search. Pre-purchase information search involves information seeking and processing activities that aid decision making involving a product (Kelly, 1968). Ongoing information search activities however, are not related to specific purchase decisions or needs (Bloch, et al., 1986). Factors influencing pre-purchase and ongoing information search are market environment (store, product label), situational factors (time, monetary resources) and purchase involvement (Moore & Lehman, 1980; Bloch, 1980). The following section discusses consumer characteristics such as demographics, levels of perceived risk and clothing evaluative criteria that influence decision making involving apparel.

## Consumer Demographics and Apparel Imports

### Age

Findings relating age to attitudes toward and purchasing of apparel imports have not been consistent. Research has indicated that consumers over age 50 prefer to purchase U.S. made products more than other age groups. Dickerson (1982b, 1982c), Gipson (1986) and Smothers (1983) found that younger adults seem to be indifferent to garment country of origin.

Dickerson (1982c, 1982b) found that respondents under the age of 30 and over 70 years of age are less likely to be concerned about the country of origin of garments and are less likely to feel that imported apparel is of lesser quality than U.S. apparel. R.H. Bruskin Associates (Foley, 1978) found that an average of 20% of respondents under the age of 50 said they "disagree somewhat" with restricting apparel imports. The majority of respondents over age 50 (90%) agreed "strongly" and "somewhat" to restricting imports. McLean, Roper & Smothers (1986) found no relationship between age and purchase of imported versus domestic blouses.

Gipson (1986) contrasted the age of consumers to importance ratings for country of origin. A seven-point scale ranging from not at all important (1), to very important (7) found that for each age group the largest percentage of respondents identified country of origin as of low importance. However, more sweater purchasers over 50 years of age rated importance of country of origin between medium or very important (20%). The importance of country of origin to respondents under age 20 ranged from medium to not at all important (1).

Terry (1985) contrasted the age of housewives to household purchases of specific items of men's clothing. Terry found that respondents less than 34 years old and more than 55 years old were more likely to purchase domestic clothing than consumers in the middle age ranges. Consumers in the middle age range were more likely to purchase imported clothing. Smothers (1983) compared purchases of



blouses by female students and female consumers. The Consumer group for which most respondents ranged in age from 51 to 70 years purchased domestic and imported blouses in a more equal ratio than the students who were all under age 30. Students tended to purchase fewer domestically produced blouses than imported blouses.

### Sex

Only two studies contrasted men's and women's views on apparel imports. Women placed higher value on domestic apparel than did men and were more concerned about apparel imports than men (Dickerson, 1982b, 1982c). R.H. Bruskin Associates (Foley, 1978) also found that women were more in favor of limiting apparel imports.

### Income

Comparison of consumers' level of income to attitudes and purchase of imported apparel shows that the middle income households seem to be most aware and concerned about apparel imports. The middle income groups may be more affected by apparel imports as far as job availability is concerned. However, low income households may purchase more domestic clothing due to the fact that most clothing available at lower price ranges tends to be made in the United States.

Dickerson (1982b, 1982c) found that respondents in the middle income categories, between \$10,000 and \$40,000, were the most concerned about purchasing domestic versus imported apparel while the highest and lowest income groups were the least concerned and were more likely to notice country of origin, and less likely to feel imports were inferior in quality. Terry (1985) found results parallel to Dickerson's. However, households with annual incomes below \$5,000 were more likely to purchase U.S. produced men's shirts. R. H. Bruskin's survey (Foley, 1978) also agreed with Dickerson's results. The \$20,000 - \$29,000 annual income category had more respondents in favor of restricting apparel imports, and respondents in the \$40,000

and above income category were the most opposed to limiting apparel imports.

Gipson (1986) found that the importance of country of origin in the purchase decision was not significantly different among sweater purchasers with different household income levels. The household income category \$30,000 to \$39,000 had the greatest number (12%) of respondents who judged country of origin as very important. Although not significant, none of the sweater purchasers in the lowest income category judged the importance of country of origin to be of median value or above. McLean, Roper & Smothers (1986) found no relationship between income levels and consumer purchases of imported blouses.

### Education Level

Dickerson (1982c) compared education levels of consumers and awareness of country of origin. As education levels of respondents increased, they were more apt to be aware of country of origin and less concerned about imports. Gipson (1986) found that education level was not related to the importance of country of origin. Although not statistically significant, there was also an inverse relationship between importance of country of origin and education level. Terry (1985) found more purchases of domestic men's dress shirts when the head of household had a grammar school education and more purchases of imported men's dress shirts when the head of household had a college education.

### Occupation

Research on the relationship between occupation and apparel imports have resulted in mixed conclusions. However, there appears to be a tendency for respondents in the management and professional occupations to be less concerned about the country of origin of their apparel. Dickerson (1982c) found that the occupation of the head of household was not significantly related to opinions concerning imported apparel. However, there was a tendency for consumers to be

less aware of country of origin as the status accorded to the occupational level increased. Gipson (1986) found that occupation of the consumer was not related to importance of country of origin in the sweater purchase decision. However, a significant difference was found when the following three occupational categories were compared: professional/management, sales/clerical, and homemaker. More homemakers (21%) rated the importance of county-of-origin above the median importance value than respondents in the professional/management (11%) and sales clerical occupations (3%). Terry (1985) found that households employed in farming were more likely to frequently purchase domestic men's shirts rather than imported men's shirts. Households whose occupation was laborer or retiree were more likely to purchase only imported men's shirts or only domestic men's shirts rather than a combination of imported and domestic shirts. However, a combination of imported and domestic men's shirts was purchased by households in professional and management occupations.

### Residence

Dickerson (1982c) found that city residents appeared to be least concerned about the import issue, town residents appeared to be most concerned and that rural residents exhibited an inconsistent attitude toward apparel imports. Terry (1985) found that city and suburban residents purchased imported men's slacks more often than residents of lower population areas. Dickerson (1982c) found no relationships were apparent for state of residence and concern about the apparel import situation. Bruskin and Associates (Foley, 1978) found that Northeast residents were strongly in favor of restricting imports (43%). Only 30% of Western residents strongly supported restriction of imports.

### Type of Store

Dickerson (1982c) found that shoppers who bought most of their clothing in discount stores were more aware of country of origin while

consumers who shopped mostly in department stores were less likely to be aware of country of origin. McLean, Roper & Smothers (1986) found that students purchased most of their blouses in specialty stores (59%), and they reported that less than 40% of their blouses were made in the United States. Consumers bought most of their blouses in both specialty and department stores and reported that more than 40% of their blouses were made in the United States. Gipson (1986) found that there was no significant difference between department store sweater purchasers and discount store sweater purchasers.

### Perceived Risk

Literature on the relationship between country of origin and perceived risk toward products are reviewed. Bauer (1960) was the first to define and explain the concept of perceived risk. Risk is defined in terms of possible psychological, social, functional or economic loss. The following six types of perceived risk have been identified: economic, performance, physical, psychological, social and temporal (Jacoby & Kaplan, 1972; Roselius, 1971). Cox (1967) subsequently determined that perceived risk is a function of two elements of choice; uncertainty and consequences. Uncertainty is associated with determining buying goals and their relative significance and to adapting final purchases to these goals. Obtaining and managing information reduces the uncertainty about repercussions of a purchase. Consequences of a purchase are related to performance goals. Uncertainty about consequences of a purchase leads consumers to reduce the amount at stake or delay making a choice (Taylor, 1974).

Taylor (1974) states that the comprehension of risk is significant because risk is frequently distressing because of the fear it creates which must be managed. In an effort to reduce risk consumers seek information from several sources such as friends and advertising. Consumers also reduce risk by purchasing known brands, buying from reliable retailers, looking for guarantees, and other

tactics (Roselius, 1971). Consumer behavior can be gauged in accordance with the risk perceived (Taylor 1974). This fact has induced marketing managers to employ elements of the marketing mix with greater success. Taylor's analysis of the literature on perceived risk determined that consumers subjectively analyze information and employ "cues" as alternates in lieu of desired information.

### Perceived Risk and Country of Origin

Perceived risk and attitudes toward foreign products have been found to be product specific. Hampton (1977) tested perceived risk for American products made in the U.S. compared with the same products made abroad. He found a general increase in perceived risk for products made abroad. However, some products showed lower risk when made abroad. Although Hampton tested only one less developed country (Brazil), his findings may indicate that there is a hierarchy of perceived risk which also has an inverse relationship to economic development. Baumgartner and Jolibert (1977) found that foreign products involving the same risks were judged similarly. They noted that the effect of favorable national stereotypes may be weak unless stereotypes are related to products with a certain degree of social and/or psychological risk.

### Clothing Evaluative Criteria

Information cues provide a basis on which customers may evaluate products. Bilkey and Nes (1982) reviewed literature on the effect of country of origin on consumer evaluations of products. Country of origin is considered an informational cue. Information cues are used by consumers to evaluate products and also perform as attributes.

Evaluative criteria are factors that consumers consider meaningful in the purchase decision. Engel et al. (1986) described evaluative criteria as being reflective of consumers' values and

attitudes, past information experiences, and economic, psychological, and sociological influences. Evaluative criteria help consumers understand a product and influence the attention paid to a product (DeLong, Minshall & Larntz, 1986). Evaluative criteria also help uncover the needs and wants of consumers and are cues to the type of information relevant in their evaluations of products (Bauer & Greyser, 1967). Evaluative criteria can be objective although evaluative properties tend to be subjective and dominated by the observer's inner makeup (Stemm, 1980). Characteristics of evaluative criteria that are of concern to marketers include the number of criteria used, and the salience and the determinance of each criteria. Salient criteria are those criteria considered important in the consumer decision process and determinant criteria are those criteria which influence the choice of an item to a greater extent than other criteria. A characteristic rated salient may not be determinant because it does not differentiate one product from another (Stemm 1980).

DeLong & Cerney (1983) in a study of consumers' concept of the term 'sweater' reported that consumers tend to categorize apparel in a similar manner. Jenkins & Dickey (1976), reported that price and other physical factors (intrinsic cues) appeared to be more important than psychological factors (extrinsic cues).

Several terms were used for evaluative criteria in the literature reviewed. They were purchase motive, determinant criteria, determinant information and critical attributes. Evaluative criteria relevant to apparel were studied by use of focus group interviews (Blackwell & Hilliker, 1977; Jenkins, 1973) and experiments and surveys involving the following items: 1. women's sweaters (Lee, 1983; DeLong & Cerney, 1983; Gipson 1986), 2. sketched pictures of women's dresses (Martin, 1971), 3. visualized dresses (Jacobi & Walters, 1958), 4. an inventory of women's blouses (McLean, Roper & Smothers, 1986), 5. five women's blouses (Smothers, 1983), 6. recollections of the last "best" dress, pants outfit, child's school outfit and draperies purchased by consumers (Jenkins, 1973),

7. men's jeans (Lee, 1983),
8. women's sportswear, (Miller, 1977).
9. assorted clothing (Kundel, 1976).

For those studies that rated evaluative criteria, the following were rated as very important or important criteria: quality (Martin, 1971; Gipson, 1986); coordinates with existing wardrobe Jenkins & Dickey, 1976; Gipson, 1986); style (Morris & Prato, 1981); color (Gipson, 1986; McLean, Roper, & Smothers, 1986; Martin, 1971); comfort (Morris & Prato, 1981); fit (Gipson, 1986; Morris & Prato, 1981; Stemm, 1980); price (Lee, 1983; Miller, 1977; Smothers, 1983; Kundel, 1976; Martin, 1971; McLean, Roper & Smothers, 1986); and unusual detail (McLean, Roper & Smothers, 1986). Evaluative criteria rated least important were: fiber content (Morris & Prato, 1981); department of store where purchased (Martin, 1971); store, (Martin, 1971; Gipson, 1986); salespeople's evaluation of quality and style (Martin, 1971); and country of origin, (Gipson, 1986).

Other evaluative criteria studied were: thermal comfort, quality of workmanship, warmth or coolness properties, feel of garment, softness, value, economy, sexiness, beautifulness, construction quality, suitability, liking of garment, appearance and practicality, versatility, performance, shrinkage, care, fashionability, pleasing to others, quality, and brand name (Jenkins & Dickey, 1976; Jenkins, 1973; Stemm, 1980; Morris & Prato, 1981; Gipson, 1986; Lee, 1983; Blackwell & Hilliker, 1977). Brand name (Martin, 1971; Gipson, 1986) and durability (Stemm, 1980; McLean, Roper & Smothers, 1986) had both high and low ratings in different studies. The present study seeks to determine the effect of Crafted With Pride in the USA cues and country of origin cues on product evaluations.

### Conclusions

Dickerson (1982b, 1982c) found that consumers preferred U.S. apparel products. Although Gipson (1986) found that consumers did not consider country of origin to be important in their apparel purchase

decisions, country of origin was more important to consumers who were aware of country of origin.

The Crafted With Pride in the U.S.A. program has sought to increase consumers awareness of country of origin in hopes that consumers will look for and purchase apparel manufactured in the United States. Although Crafted With Pride Council has undertaken research to determine the level of exposure to CWP advertising, nothing is known about the effect of the program on consumers' awareness of country of origin and evaluations of apparel. In addition, nothing is known about the effect of cues such as hangtags, slicks and other marketing tools on which the CWP logo appears.

The extent to which CWP cues affect consumers' evaluations of apparel from both developed and developing countries warrants examination.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

An experimental design was utilized to examine the effect of Crafted With Pride in the USA cues on subjects' evaluations of clothing items, the prices subjects expected to pay for the stimulus items and on the perception of that price as expensive, inexpensive or neither expensive nor inexpensive. The methodology is divided into six sections: 1) experimental design; 2) sample selection; 3) pre-tests; 4) stimulus item; 5) dependent measure; 6) data analysis.

#### Experimental Design

A two-by-four complete factorial between subjects experimental design was employed. The independent variables consisted of two levels of exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli (exposure and non-exposure) and four levels of country of origin labels (made in the USA, made in a developing country, made in a developed country and no identifying label).

The Crafted With Pride stimuli manipulation was accomplished by exposing or not exposing subjects to Crafted With Pride stimulus materials which were mounted on a display board. The country of origin label manipulation was accomplished by presenting a subject with one of four identical garments labeled "made in the USA," "made in a developing country," "made in a developed country" or a garment with no country of origin label. Dependent variables were subjects' evaluations of the stimulus item, the price subjects expected to pay for the stimulus item and the perception of the price as expensive, inexpensive or neither expensive or inexpensive. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the eight experimental cells.

### Sample Selection

The sample for this study was composed of female college students. Students in one of three classes in the College of Home Economics during Spring term 1988 served as subjects. Subjects were given extra credit in their courses for their participation in the study. Demographic data including age, major and class standing were compiled for each subject. The sample size was 112 subjects. An equal number of subjects was randomly assigned to each experimental cell ( $n$  per cell = 14).

### Pretests

A pretest was administered to female students of the same population as the subjects. The first pretest was administered fall term, 1987 to students enrolled in AIM 211, "Clothing and Society." This pretest was designed to determine which countries subjects considered to be developing or developed and which countries had high or low images so that the countries of origin for the stimulus items could be chosen. A list of developed and developing countries was obtained from the U.S. Department of Commerce's report on the world population (United States Department of Commerce, 1983) which assigns countries into more developed and less developed categories according to the United Nations classification. Countries on that list that had bilateral agreements on trade in textiles and apparel with the United States or were MFA signatories were included on the pretest (Twenty-fifth Annual Report, 1980/1981; United States International Trade Commission, 1985).

The first section of the pretest was given to one-half the class and subjects were asked to categorize countries as less developed and more developed. Subjects were also asked to categorize the countries they felt were more developed as new or established. Subjects were instructed not to categorize countries they did not recognize (see Appendix A for an example of the first section of the pretest).

The second section of the pretest was given to the remainder of the class. These subjects were given the same list of countries and asked to rank them on a 6-point scale anchored by the terms low image and high image (see Appendix B for an example of the second section of the pretest).

Australia, Switzerland, Greece, Italy, Japan, France, and Canada were ranked highest in image and were seen as relatively more established. As a result of this pretest, Italy was chosen as the developed country because no one saw it as less developed and all but two subjects felt it was an established developed nation. A few subjects did not answer for the other countries, or categorized the countries as less developed or newly established. India, Haiti, Peru, Uruguay, The Philippines, Nicaragua, Honduras, South Africa, Mexico and Bangladesh were all countries that were seen as relatively less developed. Although Haiti, and Mexico had higher image scores, India was chosen as the developing country because more people recognized it and more subjects categorized it as less developed than all the other countries.

#### Stimulus Item

The item selected for evaluation was a women's sweater. A sweater was chosen because this category of clothing has experienced high import penetration (see Figure 2) (Seidel, 1983). The stimulus item was chosen based on criteria that Lee (1983) found to be determinant for the purchase of a sweater. The criteria were: appearance, style or design, color, price and feel of the garment. Quality, fiber content and care requirements were also considered. Four identical sweaters were purchased from Meier and Frank Department Store for the study. The sweaters, white pullovers with a simple pattern, had the Across America brand name and were made in the USA by Knit Maven Ltd. The sweaters were regularly priced at \$29.99 and were on sale for \$26.99. The sweaters were 100% cotton and the care label contained the following directions: hand wash cool with like colors, shape, dry flat. No bleach. Do not dry clean. All of the tags including brand

name were replaced by country of origin labels (100% cotton; Made in India), (100% cotton; Made in Italy), (100% cotton; Made in the USA) and two care labels which were obtained from DJS Labels Inc: 1) Hand wash, lukewarm water. Do not bleach. Line dry. Do not wring or twist. 2) Do not dry clean.

### Dependent Measure

The following measures were administered to the subjects in order to fulfill the objectives of the study and to test the stated hypothesis: 1) a measure of subjects' evaluations of the stimulus item; 2) a measure of the price subjects would expect to pay for the stimulus item and a measure of the perception of the price as expensive, inexpensive or neither expensive nor inexpensive.

For the first measure subjects expressed their evaluations of the stimulus item on 25 evaluative criteria using a seven-point unipolar semantic differential scale for each. Evaluative criteria selected for inclusion were those found to be important in the evaluation and purchase of a sweater by Martin, 1971; Gipson, 1986; and Morris & Prato, 1981. An overall evaluation of the stimulus item was desired so other criteria were selected that were not considered important by the previous studies. These items had to do with attractiveness, prestige, fashionability, advertising, and status accorded the garment. Items were randomly ordered on the measure. Five of the items were reversed scored. Because the average item variance equaled the average item covariance, and scale parallelity was evident, reliability of the measure was determined by Cronbach's alpha statistic (see Appendix C for an example of the dependent measure). The dependent measure was pretested using students enrolled in an Apparel, Interiors and Merchandising class.

### Data Analysis

Before the hypotheses were tested, the 25 items on the evaluative measure were factor analyzed (with varimax rotation). The analysis

yielded six factors. The six factor scores along with price information were used as the dependent variables to test the hypotheses. The first and second hypotheses were analyzed using a 2 x 4 (exposure x label) analysis of variance with the subjects' price ratings serving as the dependent measure. Mean comparison was tested using the LSD (least-significant difference) test incorporating an alpha of .05.

The third and fourth hypotheses were analyzed using a 2 x 4 (exposure x label) analysis of variance with the subjects' evaluative scores on each of the six factors serving as dependent measures. Mean comparisons were tested using the LSD (least-significant difference) test incorporating an alpha of .05.

## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to determine if consumer's attitudes toward and evaluations of domestic and imported clothing were affected by "Crafted With Pride in the USA" advertising stimuli. The objectives of the research were to determine the effect of Crafted With Pride in the USA stimuli on 1) consumers' attitudes towards and evaluations of an apparel stimulus item 2) the price consumers' expect to pay for an apparel stimulus item.

Sections of this chapter which address these objectives include: 1) sample description, 2) preliminary analysis, 3) hypotheses testing, and 4) additional research findings.

#### Description of the Sample

The data for the study were obtained from a sample of female college students enrolled in classes in the College of Home Economics. A total of 119 students completed the questionnaire. Although 119 students participated in the study, five questionnaires were incomplete and two questionnaires were removed from consideration after the subjects asked if the research was about the Crafted With Pride program. Thus, the findings are based on the analysis of 112 questionnaires.

Descriptive information was compiled to gain some knowledge about the subjects. Subjects ranged in age from 18 to 48 years. The average age was 22 years. More subjects were in the 21 to 25 age category (64%) than in any other age category (see Table 1). A total of 103 subjects (92.8%) were from 18 to 25 years of age. A total of nine subjects (8.1%) were from 26 to 48 years of age.

The class standing of the subjects ranged from freshman to post-bac. Approximately 71% (80) of the subjects had junior standing or

Table 1  
Demographic Characteristics of Research Subjects

Demographic Characteristics	Number	Percent
<u>Age</u>		
15 - 20	39	34.8
21 - 25	64	57.1
26 - 30	2	1.8
31 - 35	2	1.8
36 - 40	3	2.7
41 - 45	1	0.9
46 and over	1	0.9
Total	112	100
<u>Class Standing</u>		
Freshman	14	12.5
Sophomore	18	16.1
Junior	35	31.2
Senior	43	38.4
Postbac	2	1.8
Total	112	100
<u>Major</u>		
Business	3	2.7
Education	1	0.9
Home Economics	104	92.8
Liberal Arts	4	3.6
Total	112	100

higher. The majors of the subjects included Home Economics, Business, Liberal Arts and Education. Over 92% (104) of the subjects were majoring in Home Economics.

### Preliminary Analysis

Before the hypotheses were directly tested, the 25 items on the evaluative measure were factor analyzed. The data from the evaluative measure were first submitted to principal components factor analysis (with varimax rotation). The criteria established for interpretation of the results were as follows: A) an eigenvalue of 1.0 for termination of factor extractions, B) a primary loading of at least .50 and no secondary loading greater than .50 for an item to be considered loaded on a factor.

When criteria A was employed, six factors were extracted, accounting for 66.6% of the variance with Factor I accounting for 35.4% of the variance. When criteria B was employed all but one item met the criteria as can be seen in Table 2. The item "looks comfortable/does not look comfortable" did not load above .41 on any factor. Of the remaining 24 items, eight had primary loadings on factor I, four had primary loadings on factor II, five had primary loadings on factor III, four had primary loadings on factor IV, two had primary loadings on factor V, and one had a primary loading on factor VI.

Factor I was labeled "status/prestige" and included items which related to the distinction attached to the sweater. The highest loaded item was "worn as a status symbol/not worn as a status symbol." Other items which loaded on this factor included: "glamorous/not glamorous," "unique/not unique," "often worn by fashion leaders/seldom worn by fashion leaders," "beautiful/not beautiful," "high status/low status," "prestigious/not prestigious," "an exciting style/not an exciting style."

Factor II was labeled "fashionability" and included items which related to the conformity of the sweater to current fashion. The highest loaded item was "in style/not in style." Other items which



Table 2

Rotated Factor Matrix for Six Factors in the Evaluative Criteria Measure

Item	Description	Factor Loadings					
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI
18	worn as a status symbol/ not worn as a status symbol	.78*	-.07	-.00	-.09	.13	-.08
4	glamorous/not glamorous	.74*	-.19	.10	-.02	-.06	.05
21	unique/not unique	.73*	-.17	.12	-.01	-.21	.11
14	often worn by fashion leaders/ seldom worn by fashion leaders	.72*	-.16	.16	.01	-.03	.18
17	beautiful/not beautiful	.68*	-.27	.01	-.30	.12	.22
8	high status/low status	.66*	-.24	.11	-.41	.61	.20
13	prestigious/not prestigious	.66*	-.27	.06	-.21	-.01	.14
1	an exciting style/ not an exciting style	.65*	-.31	-.06	-.21	.16	-.19
25	in style/not in style	.25	.81*	.10	-.06	.13	.08
6	fashionable/not fashionable	.24	.76*	.02	-.19	-.03	.02
20	stylish/not stylish	.36	.74*	-.04	-.10	.06	.06
24	appealing/not appealing	.38	.65*	.26	-.30	.20	.13

Table 2 (Continued)

Item	Description	Factor Loadings					
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI
16	durable/not durable	.09	.04	.86*	-.01	.03	.02
12	high performance/low performance	.40	.04	.72*	-.20	.10	-.23
10	long-wearing/not long-wearing	.06	.04	.70*	-.30	-.07	.15
15	easy to care for/ difficult to care for	-.09	-.22	.57*	.32	.18	.14
11	a good value/not a good value	.24	-.30	.52*	-.42	.05	-.03
7	feels good to the touch/ does not feel good to the touch	-.00	-.18	.07	.67*	.39	.20
9	attractive/unattractive	.36	-.49	.17	.61*	.17	.11
3	pleasing/not pleasing	.30	-.48	.22	.60*	.02	.09
2	high quality workmanship/ low quality workmanship	.40	-.15	.24	.52*	-.22	-.24
23	practical/not practical	-.12	-.03	.28	.05	.71*	-.14
19	attractive color/unattractive color	.19	-.17	-.14	-.23	.65*	.20

Table 2 (Continued)

Item	Description	Factor Loadings					
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI
22	promoted in the media/ not promoted in the media	.24	-.13	.05	-.12	.00	.81*
5	looks comfortable/ does not look comfortable	-.13	.34	.42	.23	.33	-.18
Eigenvalue		8.85	2.64	1.95	1.14	1.04	1.02
Percent of Variance		35.40	10.58	7.82	4.56	4.18	4.07

\*Items with acceptable factor loadings

loaded on this factor included: "fashionable/not fashionable," "stylish/not stylish," "appealing/not appealing."

Factor III was labeled "objective product criteria" and included items which related to the physical longevity and relative worth of the garment. The highest loaded item was "durable/not durable." Other items which loaded on this factor included: "high performance/low performance," "long-wearing/not long-wearing," "easy to care for/difficult to care for," "a good value/not a good value."

Factor IV was labeled "subjective product criteria" and included items which related to subject's perception of the garments appeal to the senses. The highest loaded item was "feels good to the touch/does not feel good to the touch." Other items which loaded on this factor included: "attractive/unattractive," "pleasing/not pleasing," "high quality workmanship/low quality workmanship."

Factor V was labeled "color" and included items which related to color. The color of the actual stimulus item was white, consequently the item "practical/not practical" was related to the color of the stimulus item. The highest loaded item was "practical/not practical." The other item which loaded on this factor was "attractive color/unattractive color."

Factor VI was labeled "media promotion" and included one item - "promoted in the media/not promoted in the media." Evaluative criteria factors and their percentage of overall variance are listed in Table 3.

The Cronbach's alpha reliability test was performed on the evaluative measure. The reliability for the four testable evaluative criteria factors (two factors had two or less items) ranged from .77 to .90. Reliability coefficients are as follows: status/prestige .90, fashionability .86, objective product criteria .77, and subjective product criteria .81 (see Table 4). The overall reliability of the 25 items on the evaluative measure was .91.

The mean values and standard deviations for the six evaluative criteria factors are found in Table 5. The possible range of scores for the eight items on the status/prestige factor was 8 to 49; for the

Table 3

## Evaluative Criteria Factors

<u>Factor I</u>	<u>Factor II</u>	<u>Factor III</u>
"Status/Prestige"	"Fashionability"	"Objective Product Criteria"
worn as a status symbol/ not worn as a status symbol	in style/not in style	durable/not durable
glamorous/not glamorous	fashionable/not fashionable	high performance/ low performance
unique/not unique	stylish/not stylish	long-wearing/ not long-wearing
often worn by fashion leaders/ seldom worn by fashion leaders	appealing/not appealing	easy to care for/ difficult to care for
beautiful/not beautiful	10.58 <sup>a</sup>	a good value/ not a good value
high status/low status		7.82 <sup>a</sup>
prestigious/not prestigious		
an exciting style/ not an exciting style		
35.40 <sup>a</sup>		

Table 3 (Continued)

Evaluative Criteria Factors

<u>Factor IV</u>	<u>Factor V</u>	<u>Factor VI</u>
"Subjective Product Criteria".	"Color"	"Promoted in the Media"
feels good to the touch/ does not feel good to the touch	practical/not practical	promoted in the media/ not promoted in the media
attractive/unattractive	attractive color/ unattractive color	4.07 <sup>a</sup>
pleasing/not pleasing	4.18 <sup>a</sup>	
high quality workmanship/ low quality workmanship		
4.56 <sup>a</sup>		

<sup>a</sup> percentage of variance

Table 4

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients  
for the Six Evaluative Criteria Factors

Factor	Item No.	Mean	Alpha	Standardized Item Alpha
<u>Status/Prestige</u>				
	18	2.75		
	4	2.77		
	21	2.48		
	14	3.04		
	17	4.18		
	8	4.07		
	13	3.45		
	1	3.57		
Total		26.32	.895	.897
<u>Fashionability</u>				
	25	4.75		
	6	4.70		
	20	4.44		
	24	5.04		
Total		18.93	.863	.863
<u>Objective Product Criteria</u>				
	16	4.30		
	12	4.55		
	10	4.43		
	15	4.03		
	11	4.85		
Total		22.16	.755	.773
<u>Subjective Product Criteria</u>				
	7	6.22		
	9	5.06		
	3	5.18		
	2	4.53		
Total		20.98	.810	.807
<u>Color</u>				
	25	5.72		
	19	5.19		
Total		10.91	---	---
<u>Media Promotion</u>				
	22	6.13	---	---
<u>All Items</u>		109.77	.907	.911

Table 5  
 Mean Scores, Ranges and Standard Deviations of the Factors  
 on the Evaluative Criteria Measure<sup>a</sup>

Factors	Mean	Range	SD
Status/Prestige	26.32	8 - 49	8.16
Fashionability	18.93	4 - 28	4.77
Objective Product Criteria	22.16	11 - 32	5.04
Subjective Product Criteria	20.99	10 - 28	4.00
Color	10.92	5 - 14	2.12
Media Promotion	4.13	1 - 7	1.49
All Items	109.77	56 - 157	18.90

<sup>a</sup><sub>n</sub> = 112.



four items on the fashionability factor the range was 4 to 28; for the five items on the objective product criteria factor the range was 11 to 32; for the five items on the subjective product criteria factor the range was 10 to 28; for the two items on the color factor the range was 5 to 14; and for the item on the media promotion factor the range was 1 to 7. For the entire evaluative measure the range of scores was 56 to 157.

### Hypotheses Testing

The investigation consisted of eight experimental manipulations. Four levels of country of origin (USA, Italy, India and no country of origin) and two levels of exposure to Crafted With Pride cues (exposed and not exposed) were crossed to constitute a 2 x 4 complete factorial between subjects design. Findings are presented for each of the four hypotheses tested.

#### Hypothesis I

The first hypothesis stated that the price subjects indicate they would expect to pay for an apparel stimulus item would differ between subjects exposed to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues and subjects not exposed to such cues.

Contained in Table 6 are data on the analysis of variance of the price subjects indicated they would expect to pay for the stimulus item. Although the mean price for those subjects exposed to Crafted With Pride cues was slightly higher - \$29.99 versus \$28.81 (see Table 7), the main effect for exposure to Crafted With Pride cues versus non-exposure to these cues  $F(1, 104) = .44$ ;  $p \leq .50$  was not significant (see Table 6). Therefore, hypothesis I was not supported since no significant differences were found between the price subjects expected to pay for the stimulus item when they were exposed to Crafted With Pride cues versus when they were not exposed to such cues.

Table 6

Analysis of Variance Summary for the  
Price Subjects Expected to Pay for the Stimulus Item

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	p
CWP Exposure	38.92	1	38.92	.44	.50
Country of Origin	13.82	3	46.07	.52	.58
CWP Exposure X Country of Origin	24.56	3	81.87	.92	.51
Residual	92.75	104	89.18	.56	
Total	96.97	111	87.36	.98	

Table 7

Mean Scores, Ranges and Standard Deviations  
for the Price Subjects Expected to Pay  
for the Stimulus Item (in dollars)

Situation	Mean	Range	Standard Deviation
<u>Exposure</u>			
Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	29.99	15.00 - 60.00	9.54
Not Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	28.81	12.00 - 55.00	9.22
<u>Country of Origin</u>			
Made in the USA	29.70	17.50 - 60.00	11.06
Made in Italy	31.07	15.00 - 60.00	10.54
Made in India	28.68	15.00 - 40.00	6.83
No Country of Origin Label	28.16	12.00 - 55.00	8.60
Mean Total for All Situations	29.40	12.00 - 60.00	9.35

### Hypothesis II

The second hypothesis stated that there would be a hierarchical pattern of price estimations for apparel stimulus items with the domestic stimulus item (made in the USA) receiving the highest estimated price, the stimulus item made in a developed country (Italy) receiving the middle estimated price and the stimulus item made in a developing country (India) receiving the lowest estimated price.

Contained in Table 7 are the mean scores for the price subjects indicated they would expect to pay for the stimulus item. The sweater labeled made in Italy received the highest mean price estimate (\$31.07), followed by the USA label (\$29.78), the India label (\$28.68) and the sweater with no country of origin label (\$28.16).

Contained in Table 6 are data on the analysis of variance of the price subjects indicated they would expect to pay for the stimulus item. The main effect for country of origin  $F(3, 104) = .52$ ;  $p \leq .58$  was not significant. Therefore hypothesis II was not supported.

### Hypothesis III

The third hypothesis stated that evaluations of an apparel stimulus item would differ between subjects exposed to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues and subjects not exposed to such cues.

For hypothesis III analysis of variance was used to determine if scores on the six evaluative factors were related to differences in exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues. Results are reported in Table 8. Findings are discussed for each of the evaluative factors.

### Status/Prestige

The mean score for the group exposed to Crafted With Pride cues (27.77) was slightly higher than the mean score (27.52) for the group that was not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues (see Table 9).

Table 8

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for Evaluative Criteria Categories With Exposure/Non-exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA Cues (CWP Exposure) and Country of Origin (COO)

Factor	Source of Variation	df	Mean Square	F	p
Status/Prestige	<u>Main Effect</u>				
	CWP Exposure	1	.89	0.01	0.93
	COO	3	11.40	0.17	0.97
	CWP Exposure x COO	3	126.34	1.88	0.14
	Residual	104	67.04		
	Total	111	66.54		
Fashionability	<u>Main Effect</u>				
	CWP Exposure	1	57.14	2.47	0.11
	COO	3	20.67	0.89	0.51
	CWP Exposure x COO	3	.67	0.03	1.00
	Residual	104	23.12		
	Total	111	22.75		
Objective Product Criteria	<u>Main Effect</u>				
	CWP Exposure	1	9.14	0.39	0.50
	COO	3	33.75	1.42	0.24
	CWP Exposure x COO	3	82.14	3.46	0.02*
	Residual	104	23.73		
	Total	111	25.45		

Table 8 (Continued)

Factor	Source of Variation	df	Mean Square	F	p
Subjective Product Criteria	<u>Main Effect</u>				
	CWP Exposure	1	4.72	0.29	0.52
	COO	3	24.58	1.51	0.21
	CWP Exposure x COO	3	3.34	0.21	0.94
	Residual	104	16.25		
	Total	111	16.03		
Color	<u>Main Effect</u>				
	CWP Exposure	1	8.93 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.00	0.99
	COO	3	3.98	0.88	0.51
	CWP Exposure x COO	3	5.75	1.27	0.29
	Residual	104	4.51		
	Total	111	4.49		
Promoted in the Media	<u>Main Effect</u>				
	CWP Exposure	1	2.58	1.15	0.29
	COO	3	3.56	1.59	0.20
	CWP Exposure x COO	3	0.32	0.14	0.99
	Residual	104	4.51		
	Total	111	4.49		

\*p&lt;.05.

Table 9

## Mean Scores of the Six Evaluative Criteria Factors

	Means					
	<u>FI</u>	<u>FII</u>	<u>FIII</u>	<u>FIV</u>	<u>FV</u>	<u>FVI</u>
	Status/ Prestige	Fashion- ability	Objective Product Criteria	Subjective Product Criteria	Color	Promoted in the Media
<u>Situation</u>						
<u>Exposure</u>						
Exposure to Crafted With Pride Cues	27.77	18.21	22.45	20.78	10.91	4.28
Not Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	27.52	19.64	21.87	21.20	10.93	3.98
<u>Country of Origin</u>						
Made in the USA	27.14	18.36	23.03	20.36	11.03	4.57
Made in Italy	27.93	18.93	21.11	21.07	10.96	3.75
Made in India	28.25	20.14	23.18	22.28	11.28	3.96
No Country of Origin Label	27.25	18.28	21.32	20.25	10.39	4.25

The main effect  $F(1, 104) = 0.01$ ;  $p \leq 0.93$  was not significant (see Table 8).

### Fashionability

The mean score for the group exposed to Crafted With Pride cues (18.21) was lower than the mean score (19.64) for the group that was not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues (see Table 9). The main effect was not significant at the .05 level  $F(1, 104) = 2.47$ ;  $p \leq 0.11$  (see Table 8).

### Objective Product Criteria

The mean score for the group exposed to Crafted With Pride cues (22.45) was higher than the mean score (21.87) for the group the was not exposed (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(1, 104) = 0.39$ ;  $p \leq 0.50$  was not significant (see Table 8).

### Subjective Product Criteria

The mean score for the group exposed to Crafted With Pride cues (20.78) was lower than the mean score (21.20) for the group that was not exposed to the cues (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(1, 104) = 0.29$ ;  $p \leq 0.52$  was not significant (see Table 8).

### Color

The mean score for the group exposed to Crafted With Pride cues (10.91) was just slightly lower than the mean score (10.93) for the group that was not exposed (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(1, 104) = 0.00$ ;  $p \leq 0.99$  was not significant (see Table 8).



### Media Promotion

The mean score for the group that was exposed to Crafted With Pride cues (4.28) was higher than the mean score (3.98) for the group that was not exposed (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(1, 104) = 1.15$ ;  $p \leq 0.29$  was not significant (see Table 8).

### Summary

For all the evaluative factors (status/prestige, fashionability, color, media promotion, objective and subjective product criteria) no significant main effects occurred in the analysis of variance for exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues. Mean values for the factors when subjects were exposed to Crafted With Pride cues were not consistently higher and the differences were not significant. Based on the preceding findings hypothesis III was rejected as stated. The subjects in the study who were exposed to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues gave nearly the same ratings for all evaluative factors as subjects not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues.

### Hypothesis IV

The fourth hypothesis stated that there would be a hierarchical pattern of evaluation scores for apparel stimulus items, with the domestic stimulus item (made in the USA) receiving the highest evaluation score, the stimulus item made in a developed country (Italy) receiving the middle score and the stimulus item made in a developing country (India) receiving the lowest score.

For hypothesis IV, analysis of variance was used to determine if differences in the scores of each of the six evaluative factors were related to the labeled country of origin of the sweaters. Results are reported in Table 8. Findings are discussed for each of the evaluative criteria factors.

### Status/Prestige

The mean scores are ranked as follows: India (28.25), Italy (27.93), no country of origin label (27.25) and USA (27.14) (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(3, 104) = 0.17$ ;  $p \leq 0.97$  for country of origin label was not significant (see Table 8).

### Fashionability

The mean scores are ranked as follows: India (20.14), Italy (18.93), USA (18.36) and not country of origin label (18.28) (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(3, 104) = 0.89$ ;  $p \leq 0.51$  was not significant (see Table 8).

### Objective Product Criteria

The mean scores are ranked as follows: India (23.18), USA (23.03), no country of origin label (21.32) and Italy (21.11) (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(3, 104) = 1.42$ ;  $p \leq 0.24$  was not significant (see Table 8).

### Subjective Product Criteria

The mean scores are ranked as follows: India (22.28), Italy (21.07), USA (20.36) and no country of origin label (20.25) (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(3, 104) = 1.51$ ;  $p \leq 0.21$  was not significant (see Table 8).

### Color

The mean scores are ranked as follows: India (11.28), USA (11.03), Italy (10.96) and no country of origin label (10.39) (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(3, 104) = 0.88$ ;  $p \leq 0.50$  was not significant (see Table 8).

### Media Promotion

The mean scores are ranked as follows: USA (4.57), no country of origin label (4.25), India (3.96) and Italy (3.75) (see Table 9). The main effect  $F(3, 104) = 1.59$ ;  $p \leq 0.20$  was not significant (see Table 8).

### Summary

For all of the evaluative factors (status/prestige, fashionability, color, media promotion, objective and subjective product criteria) no significant main effects occurred in the analysis of variance for country of origin label.

Mean values for the sweater with a USA label were not ranked first, in fact, the USA label was ranked first for only one factor - media promotion. The USA labeled sweater received two second place, two third place and one fourth place ranking for the factors. The sweater labeled made in Italy was ranked second for three factors, third for two factors and fourth for one factor. The sweater labeled made in India was ranked first for five factors and fourth for one factor. The sweater with no country of origin label was ranked second for one factor, third for two factors and fourth for three factors.

Based on the preceding findings hypothesis IV was rejected as stated. The mean for subjects who saw a sweater labeled "made in the USA" was only higher for one factor, the mean for the subjects who saw a sweater labeled "made in Italy" was only the middle rating for three factors and the mean for the sweater labeled "made in India" was not ranked last, but first in all but one factor. The means were not in the predicted order (USA, Italy, India) for any of the six factors.

### **Additional Research Findings**

Although there was insufficient evidence to support a hypothesis of interaction effects between exposure to Crafted With Pride cues and

country of origin labels, an interaction was thought to exist for at least one factor. Although no main effects were significant for the six evaluative criteria factors, interaction effects were significant for one evaluative factor, objective product criteria (see Table 8). Interaction effects are discussed for each of the evaluative factors as well as the price subjects expected to pay for the stimulus items. An additional section on the perception of the relative price of the sweaters was included in order to ascertain the perceived price level of the sweater. Subjects' indication of wanting to own the sweater were included in order to determine if subjects liked the sweater enough to want to own one.

### Evaluative Factors

#### Status/Prestige

No two-way interaction effects were significant for the status/prestige factor  $F(3, 104) = 1.88$ ;  $p \leq 0.14$  (see Table 8). Exposure to Crafted With Pride cues was not related to the perceived status or prestige of the four differently labeled sweaters (see Table 10).

#### Fashionability

No two-way interaction effects were significant for the fashionability factor  $F(3, 104) = 0.03$ ;  $p \leq 1.00$  (see Table 8). Exposure to Crafted With Pride cues was not related to the perceived fashionability of the four sweaters (see Table 11).

#### Objective Product Criteria

Differences for the objective product criteria evaluations were significant for the two-way interaction effect (exposure to Crafted With Pride cues x country of origin label information)  $F(3, 104) = 3.46$ ;  $p \leq 0.02$  (see Table 8). The least significant difference (LSD)

Table 10

Summary Table of the Interaction Between  
Crafted With Pride Exposure and Country of Origin  
for the Status/Prestige Factor Evaluative Scores

Treatment Manipulation	Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	Not Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues
Made in the USA	25.07	25.14
Made in Italy	29.71	24.14
Made in India	24.50	29.07
No Country of Origin Label	25.36	26.57
Total Mean	26.41	26.23

Table 11

Summary Table of the Interaction Between  
Crafted With Pride Exposure and Country of Origin  
for the Fashionability Factor Evaluative Scores

Treatment Manipulation	Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	Not Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues
Made in the USA	17.71	19.00
Made in Italy	18.36	19.50
Made in India	19.43	20.86
No Country of Origin Label	17.36	19.21
Total Mean	18.21	19.64

procedure was used to compare mean values to determine which pairs differed significantly.

The mean scores for the treatment made in the USA/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues were significantly different from the mean scores for the treatment made in the USA/exposed to Crafted With Pride cues at the 0.05 significance level. Subjects who evaluated the sweater that was labeled made in the USA gave higher evaluation scores when they were not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues than when they were exposed to cues (means = 24.93 and 21.14, respectively) (see Table 12).

The mean scores for the treatment made in USA/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues were also significantly different from the mean scores for the treatment made in Italy/not exposed to Crafted with Pride cues at the 0.05 significance level. Subjects who were not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues and evaluated a sweater labeled made in the USA gave a higher rating (24.93) than subjects who were not exposed to the cues and evaluated a sweater labeled made in Italy (18.93) (see Table 12).

The mean scores for the treatment made in Italy/exposed to Crafted With Pride cues were significantly different from the mean scores for the treatment made in Italy/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues at the 0.05 significance level. Subjects who evaluated the sweater that was labeled made in Italy gave higher evaluation scores when they were exposed to Crafted With Pride cues (23.28) than when they were not exposed to the cues (18.93) (see Table 12).

### Subjective Product Criteria

No two-way interaction effects were significant for the subjective product criteria factor  $F(3, 104) = 0.21; p \leq 0.94$  (see Table 8). For the evaluators of sweaters made in varying countries, the exposure to Crafted With Pride cues made no difference in the ratings on the subjective product criteria (see Table 13).

Table 12

Summary Table of the Interaction Between  
Crafted With Pride Exposure and Country of Origin  
for the Objective Product Criteria Factor Evaluative Scores

Treatment Manipulation	Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	Not Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues
Made in the USA	21.14 <sub>a</sub>	24.93 <sub>b</sub>
Made in Italy	23.28 <sub>a</sub>	18.93 <sub>c</sub>
Made in India	24.07	22.28
No Country of Origin Label	21.28	21.36
Total Mean	22.44	21.87

Note. Means with different subscripts differ significantly at  $p < .05$ .

Table 13

Summary Table of the Interaction Between  
Crafted With Pride Exposure and Country of Origin  
for the Subjective Product Criteria Factor Evaluative Scores

Treatment Manipulation	Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	Not Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues
Made in the USA	20.14	20.57
Made in Italy	21.36	20.78
Made in India	21.86	22.71
No Country of Origin Label	19.78	20.71
Total Mean	20.78	21.19

### Color

No two-way interaction effects were significant for the color factor  $F(3, 104) = 1.27$ ;  $p \leq 0.29$  (see Table 8). Crafted With Pride cues were not related to differences in ratings on the color factor for the four sweaters (see Table 14).

### Media Promotion

No two-way interaction effects were significant for the media promotion factor  $F(3, 104) = 0.14$ ;  $p \leq 0.99$  (see Table 8 and Table 15).

### Summary

Although differences in evaluative scores were not significant for subjects exposed or not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues and for different country of origin labels when taken separately, when taken together differences were significant for the objective product criteria factor at the .05 alpha level. No exposure x country of origin interaction was found for the status/prestige, fashionability, subjective product criteria, color and media promotion factors.

### Price Expected to Pay

No two-way interaction effects were significant for the price subjects expected to pay for the stimulus item  $F(3, 104) = .92$ ;  $p \leq .51$  (see Table 6). For the evaluators of the sweaters made in varying countries, the exposure to Crafted With Pride cues made no difference in the price they expected to pay for the stimulus items (see Table 16).



Table 14

Summary Table of the Interaction Between  
Crafted With Pride Exposure and Country of Origin  
for the Color Factor Evaluative Scores

Treatment Manipulation	Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	Not Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues
Made in the USA	10.57	11.50
Made in Italy	10.64	11.29
Made in India	11.57	11.00
No Country of Origin Label	10.86	9.93
Total Mean	10.91	10.93

Table 15

Summary Table of the Interaction Between  
Crafted With Pride Exposure and Country of Origin  
for the Media Promotion Factor Evaluative Scores

Treatment Manipulation	Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	Not Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues
Made in the USA	4.86	4.28
Made in Italy	3.93	3.57
Made in India	4.00	3.93
No Country of Origin Label	4.36	4.14
Total Mean	4.28	3.98

Table 16

Summary Table of the Interaction Between  
Crafted With Pride Exposure and Country of Origin  
for the Price Subjects Expected to Pay

Treatment Manipulation	<u>Mean Price Expected to Pay, \$</u>	
	Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues	Not Exposed to Crafted With Pride Cues
Made in the USA	29.96	29.43
Made in Italy	34.14	28.30
Made in India	27.89	29.46
No Country of Origin Label	27.96	28.36
Total Mean	29.99	28.81

### Perception of Relative Price

One of the questions on the questionnaire was: would you consider this sweater to be inexpensive, expensive, or neither expensive or inexpensive? Of the 112 subjects, 77 indicated that the price was neither expensive nor inexpensive, 32 indicated that the price was inexpensive and 3 indicated that the price was expensive. The main effect  $F(3, 104) = .05$ ;  $p \leq .99$  was not significant for country of origin nor exposure to Crafted With Pride cues  $F(1, 104) = .54$ ;  $p \leq .47$ . No two-way interaction effect was significant  $F(3, 104) = .27$ ;  $p \leq .85$  (see Table 17).

Subjects were also asked if they would like to have a sweater like the stimulus item in their size. Of the 112 subjects, 73 indicated that they would like to have a sweater like the stimulus item and 39 indicated that they would not like to have a sweater like the stimulus item. The main effect  $F(3, 104) = .64$ ;  $p \leq .59$  was not significant for country of origin nor exposure to Crafted With Pride cues  $F(1, 104) = .34$ ;  $p \leq .56$ . No two-way interaction effect was significant  $F(3, 104) = .14$ ;  $p \leq .94$  (see Table 18). The above results demonstrate that subjects who were exposed to Crafted With Pride cues were no different than subjects who were not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues in their wish to have a sweater like the stimulus item and their perception of the relative price of the stimulus item. Country of origin of the stimulus item also had no effect on subjects' answers to the above questions.

Table 17

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for Perceived Expense of the Stimulus Item With Exposure/Non-exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA Cues (CWP Exposure) and Country of Origin (COO)

	Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	Mean Square	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Perceived Price	<u>Main Effect</u>				
	CWP Exposure	1	0.14	0.54	0.47
	COO	3	0.01	0.50	0.99
	CWP Exposure x COO	3	0.07	0.27	0.85
	Residual	104	0.27		
	Total	111	0.25		

Table 18

Analysis of Variance Summary Table for the Question: Would you like to have a sweater like this in your size? With Exposure/Non-exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA Cues (CWP Exposure) and Country of Origin (COO)

	Source of Variation	<u>df</u>	Mean Square	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Would you like to have a sweater like this in your size?	<u>Main Effect</u>				
	CWP Exposure	1	0.08	0.34	0.56
	COO	3	0.15	0.64	0.59
	CWP Exposure x COO	3	0.03	0.14	0.94
	Residual	104	0.24		
	Total	111	0.23		

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was designed to investigate the effect of "Crafted With Pride in the USA" cues on evaluations of domestic and imported stimulus items, the price subjects would expect to pay for a stimulus item and the perception of that price as expensive or inexpensive.

The Engel, Kollat and Blackwell model of consumer behavior (Engel et al., 1986) recognizes that consumers search for product information in order to make wise purchase decisions and to differentiate between comparable products. According to Moore and Lehman (1980) and Bloch (1980), the market environment, which includes product labels, influences consumer information search. In addition, the presence of stimuli in the market environment can enhance behavior relating to the stimuli (Feinberg, 1986). Feinberg's theoretical framework suggests that for some consumers the purchase situation is controlled by the stimulus properties of the situation. The question concerning consumers' attitudes toward apparel imports and the importance of country of origin to consumers and the implications of these factors for apparel retailers and manufacturers has been raised (Dickerson 1982a, 1982b, 1984; Gipson, 1986). Although consumers say that country of origin is important to them, results of experiments and surveys have been contradictory. Relationships have not been examined between attitudes toward imported clothing and stimulus properties of the environment such as the Crafted With Pride marketing program.

#### Summary

To achieve the primary purpose of the investigation, a two-by-four complete factorial experimental design was employed. An evaluative measure was developed by the researcher utilizing and revising items that were found to be important evaluative criteria by previous

researchers. Procedures used for the analysis of data included factor analyses, Cronbach's alpha and analyses of variance. Reliability, as measured by Cronbach's alpha statistic, for the evaluative measure was .91.

The research design helped to define the impact of the interaction between exposure to Crafted With Pride cues and cues indicating country of origin of the garment. Specifically, the independent variables investigated were: 1) exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues (exposure and non-exposure) and, 2) country of origin (domestic, developed country and developing country). Country of origin was manipulated through the use of four identical sweaters labeled with one of four country of origin tags; all information was identical except the country of origin information. Exposure to Crafted With Pride cues was manipulated through the use of a display board containing Crafted With Pride marketing materials which was either placed in front of subjects or hidden from their view depending on the experimental situation.

The sample in the study was composed of 112 female college students enrolled in one of three classes in the College of Home Economics spring term 1988. Subjects were randomly assigned to each of the experimental conditions of the study. There were 14 subjects per experimental condition. Each subject evaluated one stimulus item.

A review of the background variables provided the following profile for subjects. A respondent was likely to be 18 to 25 years of age (average age = 22 years), to be of junior standing or higher and to be a Home Economics major.

Evaluation of each garment was made on a seven-point unipolar semantic differential evaluative instrument containing 25 unipolar word pairs. Subjects also indicated the price they would expect to pay for the stimulus item and if they considered that price to be expensive, inexpensive or, neither expensive or inexpensive. Factor analysis was performed on the 25 criteria items. The analysis yielded six factors. The six factor scores along with price information were used as the dependent variables to test the hypotheses. The factor

accounting for the greatest amount of variance (35.4%) can be described as status/prestige and included criteria relating to the distinction of the sweater such as worn as a status symbol, glamorous, unique, worn by fashion leaders, beautiful, high status, prestigious and an exciting style. Factor II accounted for 10.5% of the variance and can be characterized as fashionability and included criteria oriented toward the conformity of the sweater to current fashion: in style, fashionable and stylish. Factor III can be described as objective product criteria and included the following criteria: durable, high performance, long-wearing, easy to care for, and a good value. Factor III accounted for 7.82% of the variance.

Factor IV can be characterized as subjective product criteria and included sensory-oriented criteria: feels good to the touch, attractive, pleasing, and high quality of workmanship. The percentage of variance for this factor was 4.56%. Factor V can be described as color. This factor included the criteria of practical and attractive color. These two criteria were related due to the color of the stimulus item (white). The percentage of variance for this factor was 21.18%. Factor VI contained one item - promoted in the media. This factor accounted for 4.07% of the variance.

Four research hypotheses guided the research study. The hypotheses were based on the underlying theory of the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell model of consumer behavior (Engel et al., 1986) and Feinberg's theoretical framework (Feinberg, 1986). The hypotheses are presented and the significant results noted.

Hypothesis I was stated as follows:

The price subjects indicate they would expect to pay for an apparel stimulus item will differ between subjects exposed to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues and subjects not exposed to such cues.

No significant main effect occurred in the analysis of variance for exposure to Crafted With Pride cues and the price subjects indicated they would expect to pay for a stimulus item ( $p = .50$ ). Based on the findings, Hypothesis I was rejected as stated.

Hypothesis II was stated as follows:

There will be a hierarchical pattern of price estimations for apparel stimulus items with the domestic stimulus item (made in the USA) receiving the highest estimated price, the stimulus item made in a developed country (Italy) receiving the middle estimated price and the stimulus item made in a developing country (India) receiving the lowest estimated price.

No significant main effect occurred in the analysis of variance for price subjects would expect to pay and country of origin label ( $p = 0.58$ ). Based on the findings, Hypothesis II was rejected as stated.

Hypothesis III was stated as follows:

Evaluations of an apparel stimulus item will differ between subjects exposed to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues and subjects not exposed to such cues.

No significant main effect occurred in the analysis of variance for exposure to Crafted With Pride cues for all six evaluative factors. Based on the findings, Hypothesis III was rejected as stated for all six evaluative factors.

Hypothesis IV was stated as follows:

There will be a hierarchical pattern of evaluation scores for apparel stimulus items, with the domestic stimulus item (made in the USA) receiving the highest evaluation score, the stimulus item made in a developed country (Italy) receiving the middle score and the stimulus item made in a developing country (India) receiving the lowest score.

No significant main effect occurred in the analysis of variance for country of origin for all six evaluative factors. Based on the findings, Hypothesis IV was rejected as stated.

#### Additional Research Findings

Although hypotheses were not proposed, further analysis for interaction effects between country of origin and exposure to Crafted



with Pride in the USA cues revealed significant relationships.

Three interaction effects were significant for the objective product criteria factor. Two of these significant interactions were between the same country of origin and exposure/non-exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues. The third interaction was between two different countries of origin and non-exposure to Crafted With Pride in the USA cues. Specifically, the mean score for the treatment made in the USA/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues was significantly higher than the mean score for the treatment made in the USA/exposed to CWP cues at the .05 alpha level. The mean score for the treatment made in Italy/exposed to CWP cues was significantly higher than the mean score for the treatment made in Italy/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues at the .05 alpha level. The mean score for the treatment made in the USA/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues was significantly higher than the mean score for the treatment made in Italy/not exposed to Crafted With Pride cues at the .05 level.

#### Discussion and Implications

The effect of Crafted With Pride cues on ratings of an apparel stimulus item labeled with varying countries of origin was of prime concern in the present study. Feinberg's theoretical framework was used as the framework for this investigation. Feinberg (1986) indicated that the presence of stimuli can enhance behavior related to that stimuli. Feinberg found that exposure to credit card cues enhanced the probability, speed and magnitude of spending.

Results reported in the literature concerning consumers attitudes toward apparel products and the importance of domestic apparel to consumers has been inconsistent. Although consumers reported that domestic apparel was important, additional research revealed that consumers generally were unaware of and did not notice country of origin and placed its importance behind other variables. No consistent correlation between purchase motive (criteria) and country of origin has been found.

As measured in this study and for these subjects, exposure to Crafted With Pride cues and country of origin had no effect on evaluations of or price accorded to an apparel stimulus item. There was no justification for the proposition that evaluations of and price accorded to a stimulus item would differ between subjects exposed to Crafted With Pride cues and subjects not exposed to the cues. Analysis of the results leads to the conjecture that Crafted With Pride cues in themselves were not a strong enough stimulus to affect the subject's behavior and that the subject's attitude formation process was not affected by Crafted With Pride cues. Consumers may have to become conditioned to cues in order for the cues to have an effect - this could be the case with credit cards which have been in widespread use for many years. Another factor is that clothing is a high involvement product. High involvement products are products that are important to the consumer and are closely tied to the consumer's ego and self-image. These products involve some risk (financial, social or psychological) to the consumer (Assael, 1987). For high involvement products the consumer decision process is in the form of a hierarchy-of-effects decision sequence. It is therefore possible that country of origin was relatively unimportant to the subjects and that although Crafted With Pride cues served to remind the subjects about country of origin, country of origin was still not that important to the subject's decisions about clothing. Consequently, other criteria had greater importance, even with reminder cues about country of origin.

No justification for the proposition that country of origin would have an effect on evaluation of and price accorded a stimulus item was found for these subjects. Therefore in this study, the level of economic development of the country of origin of the stimulus item had no effect on evaluations of and price accorded to the stimulus item. This result seems consistent with results of research based on behavior versus recall of label information (Gipson, 1986). An

implication of this result is that consumer attitudes toward imported products do not have a high degree of influence on evaluations of a product. Although consumers have expressed a preference for apparel made in the US in previous studies, no difference in evaluation of a product was found in this study, when country of origin was manipulated. Consequently, a number of other criteria must have exerted a greater influence in the evaluation of the stimulus item.

When country of origin was combined with exposure/non-exposure to Crafted With Pride cues, differences were significant for the objective product criteria factor. The objective product criteria factor contained items which could be associated with the message presented by the Crafted With Pride marketing program. Items which loaded on this factor included durable, performance, wear, care, and value. Exposure to Crafted With Pride cues resulted in lower ratings than non-exposure to the cues for the stimulus item labeled made in the USA. Exposure to Crafted With Pride cues resulted in higher ratings than non-exposure to the cues for the stimulus item labeled made in Italy. There were no differences in the ratings for the stimulus item labeled made in India. Implications of these results are that the Crafted With Pride message may have backfired. Consumers in this study rated the USA label lower when exposed to these cues and rated the Italian sweater higher when exposed to the cues. Consumer's cognitive response to Crafted With Pride information could be negative and would therefore direct consumer's response to Crafted With Pride cues in a negative direction. Gipson (1986) stated that sweater purchasers in her study were not cognizant of garment country of origin and regarded it as insignificant to the purchase decision in spite of the escalation of the Crafted in Pride program in 1985.

These results have implication for retailers and for members of the Crafted With Pride council. Perhaps evaluation of the effectiveness of the Crafted With Pride program pertaining to the population as a whole is in order. Measurement of the effectiveness of the program should be made in such a way that expressed attitudes and recall of consumers are not the sole methods of appraisal. Retailers' use of

country of origin related promotions and sourcing strategies should also be evaluated.

For the condition of non-exposure to Crafted With Pride cues, the only significant interaction was between the USA labeled item and the Italian labeled item - the item labeled made in the USA was rated higher. This finding is inconsistent with previous research. A reason for this result could be that the stimulus item did not fit the subject's perception of an Italian sweater. The sweater actually was made in the USA and was in the middle to low price range. The fashion sophistication of the subjects - most of whom were in apparel, interiors and merchandising classes could have alerted them to the fact that this sweater was not like other Italian sweaters. The mean prices subjects assigned to the stimulus items were very close - \$31.07 for the Italian labeled sweater, \$29.78 for the USA labeled sweater, \$28.68 for the Indian labeled sweater and \$28.16 for the sweater with no country of origin information. In addition, the manipulation of country of origin had no effect on subject's perceptions of the sweater's relative price.

The sophistication of subjects could also have played an important role in their awareness of the objectives of the research. The majority of subjects were of junior standing or higher and most likely participated in experimental studies previously. Another factor is the subjects' degree of exposure to the Crafted With Pride program and their knowledge about the apparel import problem. All of the subjects taking part in the study were enrolled in classes in which the subject matter was more than likely discussed. Subjects could have become sensitized to Crafted With Pride cues.

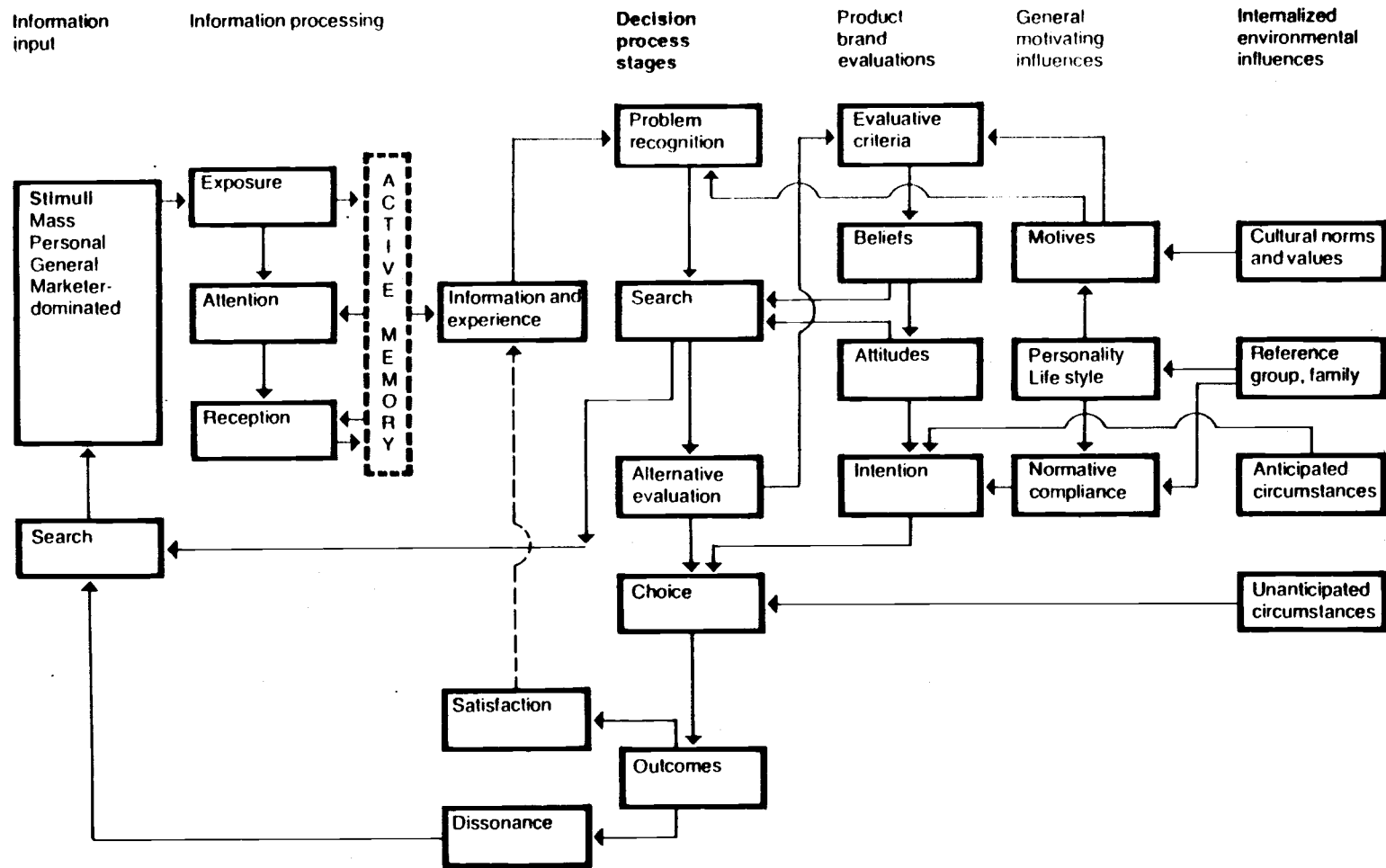
Demand characteristics inherent in the procedural operation of the experiment could have also played a role in the results. Page (1971, 1973) supported a demand characteristic explanation for attitude conditioning effects. He found that questionnaires can produce levels of awareness of what an experiment is about and therefore affect the results of a study. Another factor involves the effects of the

experimenter's characteristics such as attire and gender. All subjects were exposed to just one experimenter.

According to the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell model of consumer behavior (Figure 4), country of origin would be part of the evaluative criteria used by consumers. The model shows that product evaluations are influenced by general motivating influences such as personality, lifestyle, motives and internalized environmental influences such as cultural norms, values, reference groups and circumstances. Information input such as Crafted With Pride cues leads to information processing. Information processing consists of exposure, attention and reception which lead to the information being placed into the consumer's active memory. Memory is influenced by information and experience which then leads the consumer to problem recognition. In order for Crafted With Pride cues to affect the decision making process problem recognition had to occur. A prerequisite for problem recognition was the subjects minimum level of perceived difference for country of origin. For all of the evaluative criteria factors country of origin information by itself made no difference in the evaluation scores. Country of origin information was apparently ignored or disregarded and was therefore not pertinent to the subject's attitude formation process.

The variables country of origin and exposure to Crafted With Pride cues together influenced consumer's evaluation of objective product criteria for some of the experimental situations. Unfortunately, consumers' evaluations of the domestic product were more negative than evaluations of imported products. Perhaps previous information and experience has not been favorable for US made garments, or the marketing program aggravated the subjects. In order for a marketing program to be successful it must be designed so that the consumer perceives its features as possessing an answer to a perceived problem (Engel et al., 1986). These subjects perceived no difference in the stimulus item based on country of origin. It is probable that the marketing program addresses an issue which the subjects consider unimportant or uninvolving.

Figure 4. The Engel, Kollat and Blackwell Model of Consumer Behavior.



Source: "Consumer Behavior" by J.F. Engel, R.D. Blackwell, and D.T. Kollat, 1978, p. 556.

In conclusion, exposure to Crafted With Pride cues and country of origin did not influence evaluation of an apparel stimulus item when the variables were considered separately. However, the variables country of origin and exposure to Crafted With Pride cues appear to have worked together to direct consumer's evaluation of objective product criteria in a negative direction for some of the experimental situations. Based on the findings of the study, additional evidence is added for the proposition that consumers do not notice country of origin and place its importance behind several other product criteria.

#### Recommendations for Further Study

The researcher recommends further study of clothing related marketing cues and evaluative criteria. The study should be extended and replicated in order to confirm the findings and to ascertain if the same findings occur with different types of apparel, other country of origins, other consumer groups, and across geographical regions. The relationship between personality, purchase involvement, fashion leadership, perceived risk and the use of country of origin information cues are potential research subjects.

The development of scales which measure consumers' evaluation of clothing items is a possible area of further study. The present scale could be improved by insuring the presence of more than two items loaded on each factor. The importance of each of the criteria should also be measured. The addition of brand as an evaluative criteria and the use and importance of country of origin information in its presence should also be investigated.

Investigation of the interaction of Crafted With Pride cues with a greater number of country of origins could be explored further. The possibility that there are factors for which different classifications exist that effect interaction, such as economic development should be explored. These factors could greatly aid retailers and the Crafted With Pride council in the planning of marketing strategy.

A different setting for the research study, such as a field experiment which would control for laboratory experiment effects, could add much to the understanding of apparel related marketing cues. Additionally, research is needed to determine if country of origin and Crafted With Pride cues interact under diverse conditions. The possibility of classically conditioning Crafted With Pride cues to elicit specific responses from consumers should also be explored.

Finally, the Crafted With Pride council could undertake research to determine consumers' opinions about Crafted With Pride advertisements to see if there is a possibility that the ads have a negative influence.



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## APPENDICES

**Appendix A**

**Section One of the Pretest**

Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female \_\_\_\_\_

Directions: Rate each of the following countries as to how developed you perceive them to be (less developed or more developed relative to other countries) by circling the appropriate number. If more developed, indicate if you perceive the country to be a newly developed or an established developed country. Do not rate unfamiliar countries.

<u>Country</u>	Less	More	If More Developed	
	<u>Developed</u>	<u>Developed</u>	<u>New</u>	<u>Established</u>
Peru	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Austria	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
France	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
India	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Dominican Republic	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Jamaica	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
New Zealand	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Ireland	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Macao	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Tunisia	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Haiti	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Bulgaria	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Barbados	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Iceland	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Mauritius	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Honduras	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Costa Rica	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Canada	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Japan	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Uruguay	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
People's Republic of China	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Mexico	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Philippines	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Czechoslovakia	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Columbia	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Nicaragua	1	2 . . .	_____	_____

<u>Country</u>	<u>Less Developed</u>	<u>More Developed</u>	<u>If More Developed New</u>	<u>Established</u>
Brazil	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Switzerland	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Thailand	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Panama	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Bangladesh	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Israel	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Belize	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Korea	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Belgium	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Indonesia	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Poland	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Norway	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
West Germany	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Singapore	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Hong Kong	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Greece	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Nepal	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Sri Lanka	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Sweden	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Pakistan	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Australia	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Portugal	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Turkey	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Taiwan	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
United Kingdom	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
South Africa	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Spain	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Malaysia	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Romania	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Yugoslavia	1	2 . . .	_____	_____
Italy	1	2 . . .	_____	_____

**Appendix B**

**Section Two of the Pretest**

Sex

Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female \_\_\_\_\_

**Directions:** Rate each of the following countries as to the image (prestige) you feel each country possesses by circling the appropriate number. Do not rate unfamiliar countries.

<u>Country</u>	Low Image						High Image
Romania	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Brazil	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Columbia	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Spain	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Philippines	1	2	3	4	5	6	
United Kingdom	1	2	3	4	5	6	
People's Republic of China	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Turkey	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Japan	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Australia	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Costa Rica	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Sweden	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Mauritius	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Nepal	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Barbados	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Hong Kong	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Haiti	1	2	3	4	5	6	
West Germany	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Macao	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Poland	1	2	3	4	5	6	
New Zealand	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Belgium	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Dominican Republic	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Belize	1	2	3	4	5	6	
France	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Bangladesh	1	2	3	4	5	6	



<u>Country</u>	Low Image						High Image					
Peru	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Thailand	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Austria	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Panama	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Israel	1	2	3	4	5	6						
India	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Korea	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Jamaica	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Indonesia	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Ireland	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Norway	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Tunisia	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Singapore	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Bulgaria	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Greece	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Iceland	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Sri Lanka	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Honduras	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Pakistan	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Canada	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Portugal	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Uruguay	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Taiwan	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Mexico	1	2	3	4	5	6						
South Africa	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Czechoslovakia	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Malaysia	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Nicaragua	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Yugoslavia	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Switzerland	1	2	3	4	5	6						
Italy	1	2	3	4	5	6						

**Appendix C**

**Cover Letter and Dependent Measure**

SUBJECT INFORMATION AND INFORMED CONSENT

Project title: Fashion Evaluations

Principal investigators: Leslie L. Davis, Associate Professor  
Apparel, Interiors, and Merchandising

Jo Surerus, Graduate Student  
Apparel, Interiors, and Merchandising

You are being asked to participate in a study which deals with people's evaluation of clothing fashions. Participation in the study will consist of completing the attached questionnaire.

If you have any questions, please feel free to ask the person passing out the materials. These forms are experimental in nature and therefore do not reflect on you personally. Your name will not be associated with the data we collect. If at any time throughout the session you find you would rather not participate, feel free to discontinue. The activity should prove interesting and we appreciate your cooperation.

I voluntarily agree to participate in the proposed activity identified and explained above.

Name (Print)	Signature	Age	Date
_____	_____	_____	_____

What price would you expect to pay for this product?

\$ \_\_\_\_\_

Please circle the appropriate answer.

Relatively speaking, do you consider this price to be:

- a. inexpensive
- b. neither expensive nor inexpensive
- c. expensive

Would you like to have a sweater like this in your size?

- a. yes
- b. no

Please evaluate this product using the following series of descriptive scales according to how YOU perceive the product you have been shown.

**Important**

1. Be sure that you check every scale; do not omit any.
2. Never put more than one check mark on a single scale.

not an exciting style	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	an exciting style
high quality workmanship	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	low quality workmanship
pleasing	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	not pleasing
glamorous	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	not glamorous
does not look comfortable	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	looks comfortable
fashionable	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	not fashionable
feels good to the touch	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	does not feel good to the touch
high status	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	low status
attractive	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	unattractive
not long-wearing	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	long-wearing
a good value	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	not a good value

high performance \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ low performance  
 not prestigious \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ prestigious  
 often worn by  
 fashion leaders \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ seldom worn by  
 fashion leaders  
 easy to care for \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ difficult to care for  
 durable \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ not durable  
 beautiful \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ not beautiful  
 not worn as  
 a status symbol \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ worn as  
 a status symbol  
 unattractive color \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ attractive color  
 not stylish \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ stylish  
 not unique \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ unique  
 promoted in the  
 media \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ not promoted in the  
 media  
 not practical \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ practical  
 appealing \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ not appealing  
 not in style \_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_:\_\_\_ in style